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FOR STATEMENT CONCERNING CANCELLATION
OF 1942 ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION
SEE PAGE 696

HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE WAR

A REPORT

To the Members of the Association:

The purpose of this report is to inform you of the steps that have been taken by the representatives of higher education to achieve for education a constructive rôle in the prosecution of the war and in the total international situation created by the war.

Three organizations which collectively are representative of education as a whole assumed leadership in the consideration of the educational problems incident to the war and in the endeavors to formulate war policies of a kind that would secure the endorsement of the army, the navy, the government, and organized education. These three are the American Council on Education, of which the American Association of University Professors is a constituent member, the National Education Association, and the U. S. Office of Education.

II

The first action was taken in September, 1939 by the American Council on Education. Dr. George F. Zook, President of that organization, called a meeting in New York City of representatives of several national educational associations to discuss three activities: (1) preparation of a document on education and the emergency for the Science Committee of the National Resources Planning Board; (2) preparation of a statement for teachers concerning international relations of the United States; and (3) preparation of instructional materials concerning international relations of the United States, with special reference to the war. Shortly thereafter the American Council on Education sent letters to approximately 100 leading educators seeking judgments on the implications for education of the then developing international emergency. This was followed by a conference in

Washington D. C. of representatives of eleven national educational associations to consider the problem of education and national defense.

The National Resources Planning Board approved the statement subsequently formulated by the American Council on Education with reference to education and the international emergency and "requested the American Council to take the initiative in formulating a plan for the proper utilization and conservation of educational institutions in the present emergency and in preparation for any emergency that may develop."

In November, 1939 the American Council on Education received a special grant of money to conduct a study of the rôle of education in the international emergency and engaged the services of Professor Francis J. Brown of New York University as a consultant to assist in the development and the prosecution of the Council's program in relation to national defense. Professor Brown was provided a desk in the office of the Joint Army and Navy Selective Service Committee and held frequent conferences with the members of this Committee and with staff officers in the Army and the Navy and with representatives in related departments and agencies of the government. Early in 1940 Professor Brown also held group conferences on national defense and education at the following institutions: Harvard University, Northwestern University, University of Wisconsin, University of Michigan, The Ohio State University, and Knox College. During his visits to these institutions Professor Brown interviewed more than 200 college and university administrative officers and members of faculties.

During the first half of 1940 the American Council on Education conducted a questionnaire study among 700 educators representing different levels of education with reference to its proposed activities in connection with national defense; created a Committee on Education and National Defense; published and circulated 25,000 copies of a pamphlet, *Education and National Defense*, and established a Bulletin, *Higher Education and National Defense*. In June, 1940 the Council's Committee on Education and Defense met with government officials appointed by the President of the United States with reference to plans for cooperative action on educational matters related to national defense.

III

In July, 1940 Dr. Willard E. Givens, Executive Secretary of the National Education Association, proposed that the American Council on Education and the National Education Association invite representatives of national organizations in education to form a national coordinating committee on education and defense. The American Council on Education accepted Dr. Givens' proposal and the two organizations jointly extended invitations to representatives of 55 educational organizations to meet in Washington D. C. on August 5, 1940. At this meeting there was organized the National Committee on Education and Defense with Drs. Givens and Zook as co-chairmen. Representatives of the American Association of University Professors participated in the organization of this Committee, and the Association continues to be a member of it.¹ The activities of the Committee as outlined by Drs. Givens and Zook were to be as follows:

1. Immediate and continuous representation of organized education for effective cooperation with the National Defense Council, the Federal Security Agency, and other governmental divisions;
2. The stimulation and coordination of the efforts of educational organizations and institutions in projects related to the national defense;
3. Dissemination of information regarding defense developments to educational organizations and institutions;
4. The maintenance and improvement of educational opportunities essential in a long-range national program.

Through a number of subcommittees the National Committee on Education and Defense conducted studies on various subjects relating to education and defense, of which reports were made from time to time. Through the Subcommittee on Military Affairs conferences were held with representatives of the War and Navy Departments and other governmental agencies concerning possible ways of utilizing colleges and universities in national defense. No comprehensive plan for such utilization in the event of

¹ For a detailed report concerning the organization of the National Committee on Education and Defense, see October, 1940 *Bulletin*, pp. 534-536.

actual war was evolved or proposed; at least none was ever communicated to the representatives of the member organizations. When war came to the United States on December 7, 1941, therefore, there was in existence no plan for the utilization of colleges and universities.

IV

The U. S. Office of Education acted officially with reference to education and the war late in 1941. On December 23 at a meeting called by Dr. John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, there was appointed and organized at the request of the Honorable Paul V. McNutt, Federal Security Administrator, the U. S. Office of Education Wartime Commission. In the course of his remarks at the organizational meeting with reference to the functions of the new Commission Dr. Studebaker spoke as follows:

To be of the largest possible service to the Government in general, to a number of agencies of the Government in particular, and to organized education throughout the Nation, the Office of Education now needs and requests the united assistance of a workable group of key officials in or near Washington engaged in different fields of education. Acting upon Administrator McNutt's request, I am, therefore, establishing the Office of Education Wartime Commission.

The establishment and operation of this Commission will in no way impede, but rather will facilitate the continuing operation of existing educational organizations and committees. It is my earnest hope that the autonomy and effectiveness of the organizations represented in this united Commission will be preserved. It is believed that through the work of this Commission, schools, colleges, and libraries will be able to render even greater service to the Nation at this time of crisis. The people of the country have a right to expect this united effort by the Government and organized education.

The U. S. Office of Education Wartime Commission is made up of individuals, representative of various educational organizations and institutions, among them the American Association of University Professors.¹ The Commission has two divisional com-

¹ For a detailed report of the organization and personnel of the U. S. Office of Education Wartime Commission, see February, 1942 *Bulletin*, pp. 46-49.

mittees, one on Higher Education under the chairmanship of Dr. George F. Zook, and the other on State and Local Administration headed by Dr. Willard E. Givens. These two divisions have individually and jointly conducted studies and held meetings to consider subjects pertaining to education and the war.

Late in December, 1941 the U. S. Office of Education and the Committee on Military Affairs of the National Committee on Education and Defense sponsored a national conference on higher education and the war on January 3 and 4, 1942 in Baltimore, Maryland. Approximately 1000 persons participated in this conference. The meeting was said to be the largest gathering of leaders of education ever assembled on one occasion in the United States. The conference culminated in the unanimous adoption of 15 resolutions which outlined a program of cooperative action between the colleges and the agencies of the government. These resolutions had previously been approved by the Divisional Committee on Higher Education of the U. S. Office of Education War-time Commission and the Committee on Military Affairs of the National Committee on Education and Defense.¹

Early in 1942 the U. S. Office of Education sought the advice of a group of college and university presidents with reference to a plan for the mobilization and utilization of the facilities of higher education in the war. On May 29 Dr. Studebaker appointed a special committee to prepare such a plan in the light of all the suggestions that had been received. The members of this Committee were: W. H. Cowley, President, Hamilton College, chairman; Francis Bradshaw, Dean of Students, University of North Carolina; William T. Middlebrook, Comptroller, University of Minnesota; and J. L. Morrill, President, University of Wyoming. This Committee drafted a comprehensive statement entitled "A Recommendation to the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission Concerning the Mobilization and the Utilization of the Facilities of Higher Education for War Service." The statement was submitted by Dr. Studebaker to the Divisional Committee on Higher Education of the U. S. Office of Education Wartime Commission for approval. The Divisional Committee referred it to a special subcommittee consisting of Levering Tyson, President,

¹ For the full text of these resolutions, see February, 1942 *Bulletin*, pp. 50-55.

Muhlenberg College, chairman; Walter C. Eells, Executive Secretary, American Association of Junior Colleges; Ralph E. Himstead, General Secretary, American Association of University Professors; and John L. Newcombe, President, University of Virginia. The subcommittee approved the statement in general, but recommended a number of revisions both in form and substance. The statement was revised in the light of the subcommittee's recommendations and approved by the Divisional Committee on Higher Education of the U. S. Office of Education Wartime Commission on July 30, 1942.

The Recommendation thus revised included a plan for the organization of a Student Enlisted Reserve Corps, the members of which were to be given military status and were to receive compensation. The Corps was to be open to all qualified students regardless of race, creed, or economic status. It was recommended that the Corps include the following units: the Army Enlisted Reserve, the Navy Enlisted Reserve, and any Specialized Manpower Enlisted Reserve, together with any unassigned corps members in the process of being allocated. The Army, the Navy, and the Manpower units were to be divided into such sections as the appropriate Federal agency or agencies should, respectively, determine to be necessary. All able-bodied male undergraduates participating in this plan were to be trained for some branch of the armed services and were to be assigned to the appropriate unit until reassigned by a Federal agency to other kinds of essential war services. The plan was designed to strengthen the armed forces and to give students and educational institutions an affirmative and effective rôle in the prosecution of the war.

The proposed plan was based on a series of assumptions concerning the nature of the war and the place of higher education in the war. With reference to the nature of the war the following assumptions were stressed: a total war, a long war, a technological war, a war of intelligence and leadership, and a war in which there is need of special utilization of youth. This latter assumption was included with the full realization that in the near future the Selective Service Act would probably be amended so as to lower the age of military service under the Act to 18 years.

In the statement of assumptions concerning the place of higher

education in the war it was pointed out, that in a long technological total war which requires training, intelligence, and leadership, plans must be made to insure a continuous flow of trained personnel and that institutions of higher education are strategically placed and uniquely equipped to provide this necessary specialized training.

V

In the meantime there had been held another conference to clarify the relationships of institutions of higher education to the total war effort. On July 15-16, 1942, at the invitation of the American Council on Education, 75 representatives of colleges and universities and educational organizations met in Baltimore, Maryland "to review recent developments and to plan for the future." The following statement prepared by the conference was sent to the President, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Director of the Selective Service System, and to the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission:

At a conference of nearly 1000 college and university presidents held in Baltimore, January 3 and 4, 1942, the institutions of higher education of the country pledged their total resources to the winning of the war and urged the prompt development of plans providing for "a continuous and adequate supply of men and women trained in technical and professional skills and in leadership to meet both immediate and long-range [war] needs."

Assembled in Baltimore on July 15 and 16, more than six months after the meeting in January, a conference of officers of institutions and organizations of higher education reaffirms the declarations of the January conference and issues the following statement concerning the relationships between the war effort and the institutions of higher education—universities, schools of technology, colleges, and junior colleges:

1. We deplore the continuing lack of any adequate, coordinated plan for the most effective utilization of higher education toward the winning of the war, and we urge the establishment of such a coordinated plan at the earliest possible moment.

2. The government is not utilizing the institutions of higher education to capacity and is, therefore, impeding the flow of highly trained manpower essential to victory in a long war.

3. Through the provision of year-round instruction and many other recently adopted changes, higher education has demonstrated its readiness to devote all its facilities and energies to the war effort. However, the lack of any adequate, coordinated plan has given rise to widespread confusion among governmental agencies, educators, students, and the general public. This confusion constitutes a serious barrier to the full wartime utilization of higher education and hence to the successful prosecution of the war.

4. We believe that the full utilization of higher education is essential to the winning of long total war because:

a. The war can be won only if a continuous flow of highly trained manpower is prepared for participation in the war effort, and

b. The institutions of higher education are the only institutions staffed and equipped to provide many essential types of advanced training.

5. To insure more effective utilization of the facilities of higher education through the establishment of a coordinated plan, we recommend to the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Director of the Selective Service System, and the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission that immediate steps be taken to assure effective and continuing cooperation between the agencies they represent and higher education.

6. Among the premises upon which such a coordinated plan should be based are the following:

a. The function of higher education is to provide the Nation with broadly educated and highly trained men and women. This permanent function must be continuously performed lest the health, safety, and welfare of the nation be endangered; but in the present grave crisis the winning of the war must have right of way in higher education as well as in all other national undertakings.

b. To develop breadth of understanding, stamina, and qualities of leadership is a major function of higher education. These are essential characteristics of good officers in the armed forces. It is significant that although only 12 per cent of the men already inducted into selective service have had college training, 80 per cent of the men selected for officer training in the army have been chosen from this group of college men.

c. The year-round instruction which has been established by colleges and universities to serve the war effort creates new financial problems for students. Present plans for the voluntary enlistment and training of college students provide only

for those young men who can finance a college education or who can secure assistance within existing financial-aid programs. Large numbers of qualified young men are therefore barred from special types of training. Such a situation limits the supply of broadly educated officer material and denies to many young men equal opportunity for training. Economic status, race, or creed should not be allowed to restrict the training of adequate, skilled manpower at the college level for the war program.

d. Present plans for the enlistment and training of college students are inadequate also because (1) they fail to provide clearly defined avenues of training and service for those male students who are physically unqualified for military service but who are intellectually fitted to contribute to the winning of the war through industrial and other civilian pursuits, and (2) they fail to include young women who, as shown in other countries, have a vital part to play in the national effort.

e. The institutions of higher education stand ready to make such further adaptation of their programs and facilities as may be necessary to meet the objectives set up by the federal agencies concerned with the training of college students for war service.

7. The proposed coordinated wartime plan for higher education should be established at once so that with the opening of the fall terms in 1942 the institutions of higher education of the country can throw their entire resources into the war effort.

8. We recommend that the American Council on Education, which was established during the First World War to represent all the organizations of higher education, be recognized as the appropriate nongovernmental agency to take such steps as may be necessary to implement the proposals herein stated and to serve in a continuous capacity for facilitating cooperation between higher education and government.

VI

The War Manpower Commission appointed a special Committee on the Utilization of Colleges and Universities for purposes of the war to consider the Recommendation of the U. S. Office of Education. The members of this Committee were: Edward C. Elliott, President of Purdue University, chairman; James B. Forrestal, Undersecretary of the Navy; General Lewis B. Hershey, Director of Selective Service; G. H. Dorr, Special Assistant to

the Secretary of War; Arthur S. Flemming, Civil Service Commission; and Wendell Lund, Labor Supply Division, War Production Board. The Committee held four meetings: on August 5, 10, 11, and 13. The report of the Committee, as approved by the Commission at a meeting on August 19, 1942, was adverse to the Recommendation of the U. S. Office of Education. Section I of the Committee's report is a statement of the data considered by the Committee, which included the statement of the Second Baltimore Conference on Higher Education and the War (July 15-16). The findings are stated in the second and third sections, which read as follows:

The members of the Committee are mindful of the patriotic anxiety of the leadership of our higher educational institutions that these institutions shall have opportunity completely to perform their duties at this critical time. Furthermore, the members of the Committee are confident that these institutions may be relied upon to respond willingly and energetically to the realistic needs growing out of the grim urgency of the war situation and as set forth in this statement.

The utilization of the resources of materials and manpower of the United States for the armed services, war production, and for supporting war efforts depends on the immediate and developing war situation. Plans which are made today for the use of these resources must be flexible enough to meet the changing requirements of the war program.

The principal resources of colleges and universities for war purposes are their trained faculties and their physical facilities. The use of these resources will be determined by and should be adapted to the military needs of the Nation.

All branches of the armed services are now using certain of the resources of the colleges and universities with the active cooperation of the institutions. The nature and the extent of this use must necessarily depend upon the need therefor in the conduct of the war.

Any adequate plan designed to make effective use of colleges, universities, professional and technical schools must be based upon the following considerations:

1. All students, men and women, must be preparing themselves for active and competent participation in the war effort and supporting civilian activities. This basic proposition will, of

course, be accepted and understood by the institutions, by the students, and by the general public.

2. All able-bodied male students are destined for the armed forces. The responsibility for determining the specific training for such students is a function of the Army and the Navy.

3. For those students, men and women, who are not to serve in the armed forces there should be developed through the War Manpower Commission plans of guidance which will help the students to determine where they can make the most effective contribution to the war effort, including essential supporting activities. The War Manpower Commission should also make plans for the instruction of those for whom further training is necessary to enable them according to their qualifications to make their most needed contributions to the support of the armed forces.

4. Any plan for student war training must take into consideration the possibility that the Selective Service Act may be amended so as to lower the age of liability for service under the Selective Service Act to 18 years.

5. All those colleges, universities, professional and technical schools assuming direct responsibility for the training of students for war purposes must be prepared to readjust their instructional programs and procedures so as to enable them promptly and efficiently to meet the new and varying needs of the war ends.

6. Throughout the preparation for wartime services provision should be made for securing the complete physical fitness of students.

7. In order to avoid misunderstanding, students should recognize that the exigencies of the war do not make it possible to assure any student that he will be permitted to remain in the institution for any specified period of time. Furthermore, it should be recognized that it will not be possible prior to the opening of the academic year 1942-43 to formulate the details of some of the plans for the utilization of institutions nor to provide for the implementation of such plans.

8. The above plans for the war training of students do not contemplate any Federal subsidy to institutions.

9. To qualified students whose additional training is required for the war effort, financial assistance should be made available to permit them to receive that training.

10. The Division of Professional and Technical Personnel of the War Manpower Commission is set up for and will proceed immediately to function as a central agency to assemble information from and to advise with government departments and higher educational institutions concerned as to plans and procedures for the utilization of the facilities of the institutions and the adjustment of their programs for effective participation in the war effort.

VII

Following these developments the American Council on Education appointed a new Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government. The personnel of the Committee is as follows:

Edmund E. Day, President, Cornell University, chairman
 O. C. Carmichael, Chancellor, Vanderbilt University
 James B. Conant, President, Harvard University
 W. H. Cowley, President, Hamilton College
 Clarence A. Dykstra, President, University of Wisconsin
 Henry T. Heald, President, Illinois Institute of Technology
 Byron S. Hollinshead, Pres., Scranton-Keystone Junior College
 Margaret S. Morriss, Dean, Pembroke College, Brown University
 F. D. Patterson, President, Tuskegee Institute
 Robert G. Sproul, President, University of California
 Edward V. Stanford, O.S.A., President, Villanova College
 Raymond Walters, President, University of Cincinnati
 Roscoe L. West, President, New Jersey State Teachers College,
 Trenton
 George F. Zook, President, American Council on Education, *ex officio*

This Committee held four two-day sessions: August 31-September 1, September 22-23, October 13-14, and November 18-19. At the October meeting the Committee approved a proposed plan which was transmitted to the War and Navy Departments with covering letters urging its adoption. The Committee's proposed plan provided for the establishment of Enlisted Training Corps in the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard, to be located at approved institutions of higher education. The details of the plan were similar to those in the Recommendation of the U. S. Office of Education described in Section IV of this report.

In the meantime the Army and the Navy had each prepared plans for the utilization of the facilities of colleges in the war. These plans came to the Committee for consideration. With reference to the plan of both the Army and the Navy, the Committee urged several significant changes.

Pertinent viewpoints of the Committee appear in the following excerpts of a letter of November 23 from the Chairman of the Committee, Dr. Edmund E. Day, to the Honorable Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of War:

From the outset, we have assumed that military necessity must dictate how college and university plants and staffs are used in the war training of able-bodied male students. We realize fully that only the military authorities can determine the nature and extent of military necessity. We believe strongly, however, that the War Department plan described to our Committee on November sixteenth overlooks certain important considerations which seem to us to have an important bearing upon military necessity. We present these considerations in the form of three questions with our comments upon each:

1. Does the War Department's present tentative plan to assign only 150,000 men to colleges and universities for technical training adequately meet the needs of the Army for such specially trained men?

On September 24, 1942, our Committee discussed with War Department representatives a plan to place approximately 250,000 in an Army specialist training program. That figure was based upon estimates of over-all needs. The present figure of 150,000 is given to us, however, as the number that the Army can "spare" from immediate combat service. If the war lasts for several years, this will, in our judgment, prove to be a dangerous formula. We strongly urge that the number of men assigned for special training under the War Department plan be substantially increased.

2. Does the proposed total of 150,000 men to be assigned to the colleges and universities make adequate provision for the needs of essential civilian war services?

In your published statement of September 17, 1942, you observed that "The Army is greatly in need of men of specialized training, particularly in physics, chemistry, engineering, and medicine. We are equally interested in having adequate numbers of men of such training available to war production industries and the civilian research agencies of the government." We understand, however, that only a very small percentage of the 150,000 men to be assigned by the Army for college and university training will upon the completion of their training be assigned to industry and other services essential to the war effort.

If our understanding is correct, we are convinced (1) that the proposed plan does not give sufficient consideration to providing the specialized personnel needed by essential civilian war services, including industry; and (2) that, since the Army is dependent upon the maintenance of these services, it must be deeply concerned with meeting their requirements of specialized personnel.

3. Does the military situation require the specific timing set forth in the present Army plan?

The Army proposes to withdraw from college campuses, by February first, the great majority of the students now in the Reserve Officers Training Corps and the Enlisted Reserve Corps. Such action, together with the withdrawals of 18- and 19-year-olds by the Selective Service System, will have these damaging effects upon the War Department's own training program: (1) student bodies will be seriously depleted of large numbers of men already engaged in training which the Army needs; (2) the removal of students from colleges at unpredictable times during the next semester—and the volunteering for Army and Navy service thereby induced—will disrupt the special training programs now in operation; (3) teaching staffs will be scattered and will be reassembled later, if at all, with great difficulty; and (4) the operations of colleges and universities will be so seriously weakened that they will be unable subsequently to serve effectively the needs of the Army. These inevitable consequences of the proposed War Department plans would be so injurious that, in the interests of military efficiency, we urge that a new and more satisfactory timetable be substituted for that now proposed.

May we say in conclusion that we are certain that our reservations concerning the present War Department plan will be widely shared. We therefore solicit your personal review of the entire problem before the proposed plan for the wartime use of colleges and universities is finally adopted. We respectfully suggest that the ability of higher education adequately to serve the Army and the Nation depends upon the decisions which you reach.

On December 17, 1942 the plans of the Army and the Navy for the utilization of college facilities in specialized training were released in a joint statement of the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy. These plans were given wide and detailed publicity in the newspapers. There is, therefore, no need to restate them here. The Army plan is known as "The Army Specialized Training Program" and the plan of the Navy as "Navy College Training Program."

Although these programs of the Army and the Navy fall far short of the recommendations of the representatives of higher education, they will, if faithfully administered, contribute greatly to the nation's welfare. In their administration, the academic profession should cooperate to the fullest possible extent. If the war continues for any length of time, further steps will need to be

taken. With your help and support, the American Association of University Professors as a constituent member of the American Council on Education will continue to press for the acceptance of measures which are deemed necessary to bring about the most effective use of our colleges and universities in the total war effort.

VIII

The delay in evolving plans for the utilization of education in this Second World War has been unfortunate. It seems clear that we have not profited by our experience in the First World War. In this connection, I invite your careful consideration of an article entitled "The Government and the Colleges in Wartime" by Samuel P. Capen, Chancellor of the University of Buffalo, which appears elsewhere in this issue of the *Bulletin*. This delay has been due in part to the failure of educators to state adequately the affirmative significance of education in a modern war and in part to the seeming unawareness of the responsible representatives of the government that education is essential to the successful prosecution of such a war. Education is not a luxury which can be dispensed with safety in times of stress. Today, as never before, we need the special training, the insight, and the wisdom which our educational institutions help to provide.

In the efforts that have been made to clarify the rôle of education in the war and in the plans recently approved by the Army and the Navy, it is disquieting to note that little consideration has been given to liberal education and its significance in the present world crisis. What is the case for liberal education today? It was admirably stated by President Roosevelt in a letter of greetings to a recent meeting of the Association of American Colleges, addressed to Dr. Guy E. Snively, the Executive Director of that Association:

October 22, 1942

Dear Doctor Snively:

Winning the war is now the sole imperative. But we may seem to win it and yet lose it in fact unless the people everywhere are prepared for a peace worthy of the sacrifices of war. Furthermore, the real test of victory may well be found in what the people of the victorious United Nations are prepared to do to make the "United" concept live and grow in the decades following the peace.

Education, world-wide education, especially liberal education must provide the final answer. Colleges can render a fundamental service to the cause of lasting freedom. Theirs is the opportunity to work with sterling young people who give great promise of leadership.

Let me extend greetings to the liberal arts colleges, the main-spring of liberal thought throughout the country.

Very sincerely,

(Signed) Franklin D. Roosevelt

In a radio address of November 5, 1942 Mr. Raymond Gram Swing also stated admirably the case for liberal education. With clarity and insight he stressed the values of liberal education and pointed out the dangers that now beset it and the serious consequences which would follow should liberal education be unnecessarily impaired. The pertinent portions of Mr. Swing's address appear in this issue of the *Bulletin* under the caption, "The War and Liberal Education."

If freedom and democracy are our goals, we cannot afford to permit any serious impairment of liberal education. We must insist upon its preservation even though by doing so we risk being misunderstood. If college and university teachers lack the insight which enables them to understand the significance of liberal education in the prosecution of the war and in the preparation for the peace, or lack the courage to speak and to act in behalf of liberal education, the victory which we shall achieve in this war will, in terms of our war aims, have little permanent significance.

RALPH E. HIMSTEAD, *General Secretary*

December 18, 1942.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE COLLEGES IN WARTIME¹

By SAMUEL P. CAPEN

University of Buffalo

It is natural for the government of a nation at war to make mistakes. It seems unnatural and unnecessary that the government of the United States should make the same mistakes twice within a generation. Yet that is exactly what our government has done in one of the most critical phases of its war effort.

Machines do not win victories. Men win victories. Men who can operate machines and make them; men who can devise machines; men who can discover and apply the principles and processes of physics and chemistry that underlie the making and the use of the numerous instruments and materials required by a nation at war; men of superior intelligence and extraordinary skill, men of initiative, competent to assume the responsibilities of command on land and sea and in the air; men who can plan and administer both civil and military undertakings; thousands of men prepared for leadership or for highly specialized tasks; and a steady and increasing supply of such men, oncoming thousands and tens of thousands.

II

Responsible officers of the government, both in the armed services and in the civilian branches, recognized this elementary truth in April, 1917. Their successors recognized it in December, 1941. Throughout 1917, however, the directors of the government's military and civilian policies failed to see that the provision of an adequate supply of men, equipped by education and

¹ Reprinted from *The Educational Record*, October, 1942, Vol. XXIII, No. 4.

training to conduct the specialized activities of a nation at war, cannot be left to chance. They failed to see that the production of men did not take place automatically, any more than the production of military equipment. Factories must be converted and speeded up to supply armies and navies with equipment. By the same token the agencies which train and educate men must be converted and speeded up to furnish the human materials in the kinds and amounts required. Instead of increasing the productivity of these agencies, the government's policy in 1917 slowed them down and all but disrupted them. The nation had been nearly nine months at war before the policy was changed—barely in time to avert a national disaster. The government's policy of 1942 toward the agencies of higher training has repeated step by step the mistakes and inconsistencies of 1917. And the nation has once more been nine months at war.

The parallelism is instructive. It is worth summarizing. In 1917 and in the first half of 1942 spokesmen of the armed services and of other government departments stated repeatedly that colleges and universities must be looked to to furnish engineers, scientific specialists, administrative personnel, and junior officers. They kept urging qualified young people to enter colleges and professional schools and to remain there until called by the government for war service.

In 1917 and in the first half of 1942 government spokesmen emphatically declared (and in both years college officers heartily endorsed the declaration) that the draft must be democratic and that students could not enjoy a privileged status with respect to it.

In 1917 students were encouraged to join the Enlisted Reserve Corps of the Medical, Engineer, Veterinary, Signal, and Quartermaster Corps of the Army, with the provision that they should remain on the "inactive list" until they completed their respective courses of study.

In the first half of 1942 local draft boards, following directives of the Selective Service Headquarters, deferred the induction of students in certain specified fields of science and technology until the completion of their courses; and both the Navy and the Army established special enlisted reserves for students, members of

which were expected to remain in college on inactive status while finishing their basic technical education.

In 1917 and in the first half of 1942 what the services gave with one hand they took away with the other—from themselves.

In 1917 and in the first half of 1942 recruiting officers from all branches made the rounds of the colleges and urged students to volunteer at once for active duty.

In 1917 and in the first half of 1942 various branches of the government separately contracted with individual institutions for special types of training and research, the contracts of each branch differing in terms and requirements from those of all the others.

By the end of 1917 and before the first half of 1942 was over the armed services saw that they must depend on the colleges and universities not only for technical specialists but for the preparation of huge numbers of junior officers. They saw that the institutions of higher education must in fact be the chief source from which these officers were drawn.

By the end of 1917 and by July, 1942, through volunteering and the operation of the draft, the student bodies of colleges and universities had been seriously depleted and there was prospect of still further depletion unless effective measures were taken to prevent it.

During the whole of 1917 and the first half of 1942 hundreds of teachers were drawn from the faculties of universities and colleges to serve as specialists in the Army and Navy and in the civilian branches of the government. The departments from which these men were chiefly taken were precisely those which had been asked to carry a heavier burden than usual in order to prepare students for war service—the departments of science, engineering, and medicine.

Throughout 1917 and the first half of 1942 numerous committees representing colleges and universities importuned the government to adopt a uniform policy toward these institutions, to provide a single channel of communication with them, to avail itself of their immense training facilities, to clarify the position of students and teachers with respect to military service.

Early in 1918 the government finally acted to clear up the confusion which had hampered the efforts and minimized the services

of the collegiate institutions. It took steps to gear them into the mobilization and training machinery of the armed forces. It took steps, in other words, to utilize at least in part the unique contribution which the higher schools could make to the successful conduct of the war. The exact method adopted for accomplishing this result may not be applicable to the conditions of 1942. Nevertheless, since the government has not yet proposed another method for effecting the same purpose in the present crisis, the record of the 1918 method may be suggestive. It is a record of successes and failures.

III

The agency which the government finally created to conduct its relations with the institutions of higher education, to coordinate their activities and to exploit their resources for the nation's military undertaking, was located in the War Department. This was appropriate at the time, since the war was being fought chiefly on land, and since the needs of the army for trained specialists and for officer material far exceeded the needs of any other branch of the government. (Throughout the First World War the Navy made relatively slight use of the colleges and universities.)

The War Department's agency for dealing with the educational institutions was called the Committee on Education and Special Training. It was created by order of the Chief of Staff in February, 1918. It was not officially designated as the government's sole agency for dealing with the colleges and universities. It became so, however, by force of gravity. Its functions, as defined in the order establishing it, were in the beginning limited. The order stated that the committee was created:

To study the needs of the various branches of the service for skilled men and technicians; to determine how such needs shall be met, whether by selective draft, special training in educational institutions or otherwise; to secure the cooperation of the educational institutions of the country and to represent the War Department in its relations with such institutions; to administer such plan of special training in colleges and schools as may be adopted.

The members of the committee were three officers of the Army, one (the chairman) representing the General Staff Corps, one representing the Provost Marshal General's Department, and one representing the Adjutant General's Department. The committee functioned first under the Operations Division of the General Staff and later under the War Plans Division. Two of the three officers originally appointed continued to serve as members of the committee throughout the war. The original representative of the Provost Marshal General's Office was transferred in April, 1918, and another representative of that office replaced him. In June, 1918, a fourth officer was added to the committee as a specialist in military training.

The order creating the Committee on Education and Special Training also provided that an advisory board representing civilian interests should be associated with it. The Secretary of War named the members of this board. Originally there were five members of the advisory board. One shortly resigned and three others were subsequently appointed. The seven persons who then constituted the board served continuously until the emergency was over. They represented the following interests: colleges and universities; the United States Bureau of Education; industrial education as conducted in industries; organized labor; engineering education; agricultural education; and vocational education. The advisory board was charged with the duties of assisting the committee in outlining its educational policies, of advising it in the selection of educational personnel, and of interpreting its projects and requests to the civilian institutions.

The committee and advisory board held one regular joint meeting each week. There were numerous special meetings, also. At times, when new policies were under consideration, there were daily joint meetings. The cooperation between the military officers and the members of the advisory board was cordial and complete. All major policies and all plans of administration affecting civilian institutions were adopted in joint session. Practically all decisions were unanimous.

Two members of the committee had other duties in the War Department. The chairman, however, devoted all his time to the committee's activities, as did three members of the advisory

board. There were numerous consultations with representatives of the Navy Department and of other government departments, but no persons not members of the committee or the board attended official meetings.

As the committee's work developed, various members of the two bodies spent a certain amount of time in the field, visiting institutions in which training was in progress, inspecting facilities, conferring with institutional authorities, explaining to educational gatherings the War Department's plans and methods of operation. In the main, however, contacts with individual institutions were made by regional representatives of the committee, in conformity with a decentralized system of administration which was adopted in the beginning. The committee and the board conceived their proper functions to be over-all planning and control.

At the time of the committee's appointment, it was estimated that the various corps of the army needed 200,000 more trained technicians than were available. The shortage could not be made good through the draft without withdrawing from the essential supporting industries such large numbers of trained men as to cripple these industries and thus to deprive the Army of equipment and supplies. It was also apparent that the special schools established by the Army for the training of technical specialists could not furnish the number required unless they were greatly expanded. To meet this urgent need for additional trained personnel by enlisting the aid of civilian educational institutions was the first task of the Committee on Education and Special Training, indeed the principal reason for its creation.

The committee secured the cooperation of the technical schools and engineering departments of universities which had the necessary facilities, and arranged to send to these schools for instruction drafted men who were voluntarily inducted into the service on special calls issued by the Provost Marshal General. The men were under military discipline. They lived in barracks and drilled three hours a day. Since speed was essential, the courses of study were concentrated into a period of eight weeks. They consisted chiefly of six or seven hours of vocational training a day, conducted mostly in the shops. They were designed to prepare men to practice the mechanical trades required by the Army. Contracts

were made with the cooperating institutions covering the costs of instruction and maintenance. Altogether 157 institutions entered into such contracts with the War Department.

These training units were known as the National Army Training Detachments. Between April 6, when the instruction began, and November 11, 1918, 100,000 men, each competent in a particular trade, had been delivered to the Army, and 30,000 whose training had been completed were ready for delivery.

The Committee on Education and Special Training appointed an educational director of vocational training to have charge of the enterprise. For purposes of administration the country was divided into ten districts and a district educational director appointed in each. The district directors had full authority, subject to the general regulations of the central office, to deal with the individual institutions. On them was laid the responsibility for approving facilities and equipment and supervising instruction. The schools were given definitions of the duties each trained soldier would be called upon to perform, and were allowed complete freedom to select teaching personnel and devise methods of instruction, being held responsible only for the final result. No serious difficulties of administration developed. Both from a military and an educational standpoint the National Army Training Detachments were successful.

The record of the Students' Army Training Corps, the other large undertaking which the committee managed, was much less satisfactory. But the partial failure of that experiment appears to have been due to factors for which neither the committee nor the cooperating colleges and universities could properly be blamed.

IV

Although the shortage of technicians in February, 1918, constituted a critical emergency, it was apparent that there would soon be a similar shortage in the higher technical professions and in candidates for officer training camps. Therefore, as soon as the committee had prepared the plan for the National Army Training Detachments, it set about devising means to deal with this much more difficult problem. The original plan for the Students' Army

Training Corps was worked out during the months of May and June, 1918. It was approved by the General Staff and authorized in a general order under date of June 28. At that time the minimum draft age was 21.

The essential features of the original plan were these. A new department of the Army, known as the Students' Army Training Corps, was created. Units were to be established at colleges and universities. Students between the ages of 18 and 21 were to be allowed to enlist in this corps, thereby becoming soldiers in the Army subject to active service at the call of the President. They were to be placed on furlough status without pay. The War Department announced that it would not be the policy of the government to call them to active duty until they had completed their courses of study, or until they reached draft age. They were to receive ten hours of military training a week, six of which were to be practical military work and the other four to consist of academic studies of military value. Each summer they were to attend a summer camp conducted by the Army for six weeks of intensive military instruction.

A letter from the Secretary of War sent to the presidents of colleges and universities, in advance of the announcement of the original plan, to inform them that a system of military training in colleges was about to be inaugurated, stated:

This new policy aims to accomplish a two-fold object: first, to develop as a great military asset the large body of young men in the colleges and, second, to prevent unnecessary and wasteful depletion of the colleges through indiscriminate volunteering, by offering to the students a definite and immediate military status.

The administrative organization set up to handle the educational operations of the S.A.T.C. paralleled the one in charge of the National Army Training Detachments. The committee appointed an educational director of the collegiate section. It divided the country into twelve districts and appointed a regional director in each to deal with the individual institutions, subject to general regulations from headquarters.

It will be seen that the first plan of the S.A.T.C. contemplated a prolonged period of academic education for each student soldier.

With the accelerated programs of instruction then in force in practically all the institutions of higher education, the majority of students would have graduated before being called to active duty. Members of the corps were to be under academic, not military, control. Military training was to constitute only a little larger proportion of the student's course of study than was required of the members of the R.O.T.C.

While the committee was actively engaged in arranging with the colleges for the installation of units of the S.A.T.C. as originally projected, events occurred which necessitated a drastic change in the plan. The minimum draft age was lowered to 18. All voluntary enlistments were suspended. It was decided to mobilize our total manpower as rapidly as possible and to increase the size of the army by 2,000,000 men. This would require the selection and training of about 100,000 new officers. The best available source of officer material, indeed the only source from which such a vast number could be quickly drawn, was the college population. The S.A.T.C. was accordingly entirely revamped to meet this new military emergency.

The final plan of the S.A.T.C. bore hardly any resemblance to the committee's first proposal. Its principal features are painfully familiar to the older generation of academic officers. But for the sake of the record it may be worth while to recount them.

Units of the S.A.T.C. were established in 525 collegiate institutions. All physically fit male students over 18 years of age were voluntarily inducted into the Army as soldiers on active duty with private's pay. The maximum length of time a student could expect to remain in college was nine months. The 20-year group was to remain three months, the 19-year group six, and the 18-year group nine. All members of the corps, being on active duty status, lived in barracks (furnished by the institutions) and ate at a common mess. The weekly schedule first consisted of eleven hours of military training and forty-two hours of academic work. This was later reduced to nine hours of military training and thirty-six hours of academic work. The curriculum for each of the three groups of student soldiers was largely prescribed by the committee and contained a heavy weighting of subjects directly contributory to the technical training of an officer of the

army. The student soldiers were at all times under military discipline and control. This meant that colleges and universities were in effect army camps. The lines of authority of academic officials on the one hand and of military officers on the other were not clearly defined before the S.A.T.C. was disbanded. In many institutions there were serious conflicts and misunderstandings.

As an educational undertaking the S.A.T.C. was not a success. But it should be remembered that all possibility of success was denied it by the conditions under which it was launched. If the majority of the members of the corps could not remain in college for more than six months, it was out of the question to offer them any substantial amount of professional or general education. The predominance of the demands of the military routine, moreover, reduced the effectiveness of the small amount of academic work which the program permitted. From the point of view of the War Department the S.A.T.C. in its final form was primarily a device for the selection of officer material. The period of from three to nine months was believed to be sufficient to afford the commanding officers of the several units an opportunity to test and rate student soldiers and to determine which of them possessed the qualifications for commissions. Whether the S.A.T.C. would have served this strictly military purpose satisfactorily cannot now be stated with certainty. The order directing its demobilization was issued on November 23, 1918.

In the brief seven weeks of its existence the S.A.T.C. suffered from two unforeseen handicaps. The first was the difficulty of securing competent officers as commanders and instructors of the 525 units, officers who understood educational institutions and were convinced of the value of academic training. The inauguration of the corps coincided with the most active military operations overseas and with a large increase in the number of the drafted forces undergoing training in the camps at home. The demand for officers to serve with troops practically exhausted the available supply. The committee thus had to contend at the outset with a serious shortage of qualified leadership. The second handicap was the influenza epidemic which swept the country in October, 1918. For three weeks little military or academic work could be carried on in most of the institutions.

If the war had continued, it is probable that the operation of the corps would have been improved. Sources of friction between academic and military authorities could have been removed. Officers better fitted by temperament and experience could have been put in charge of many of the units. The adaptation of college and university plants to the peculiar requirements of military training could have been perfected.

But no improvements in the details of administration could have made the S.A.T.C. an effective agency for preparing the higher types of specialists needed both by the Army and by civilian services. As an enterprise in higher and professional education it was doomed before it started, doomed by the decision of the government to call practically all members of the corps to active service at the same time that men of like ages were called. This decision meant that no more professional or technical specialists (except in medicine and certain branches of engineering, students of which were given a tentative assurance of deferment) could be trained as long as the war lasted. It was fortunate for the United States—for the Army as well as for the Nation at large—that the unexpected collapse of Germany saved it from the consequences of this short-sighted and suicidal policy.

V

It has been said frequently in defense of the S.A.T.C. that it saved the colleges from virtual extinction. The statement is true. At the time of its establishment nothing could have saved them, except their incorporation in some fashion in the military arm. Otherwise the lowering of the draft age to 18 would have wiped out their male population. But the final formula of the S.A.T.C. was not the only formula of salvation. It was, in fact, a false and mistaken formula. The Committee on Education and Special Training knew this to be the case. The committee had already proposed a much better and more statesmanlike formula. But in the atmosphere of haste and alarm which prevailed in August and September of 1918 any project for the rational use of the agencies of higher training had no chance for consideration.

The committee could only accept the situation and employ the educational facilities of the colleges as well as the circumstances permitted.

Within the next few months—one would hope the next few weeks—some decision will have to be made by the government as to how the colleges and universities are to be used in this war. The government will have to decide whether it will avail itself fully of their resources for the production of a continuing supply, and an adequate supply, of specialists and for the basic training of officers; or whether it will make no comprehensive provision for their use and will risk such a depletion of the technical and professional skill of the nation as was narrowly averted by the interposition of destiny twenty-four years ago. The decision is a fateful one for America, and it is overdue.

We have had experience enough, and we have had it twice, to know what the broad outlines of the government's policy ought to be. Able-bodied males between the ages of 18 and 21 who have the mental qualifications for higher education should be encouraged to enlist in the Army or the Navy, placed on active duty status, paid privates' or seamen's pay, and assigned to colleges and universities in the necessary numbers to meet both the demands of the services for officer material and for specialists, and also the demands of the essential nonmilitary enterprises. If and when the military situation makes it necessary, courses of study should be stripped to bare essentials. (This is not educationally desirable but, if the war is long, it probably cannot be avoided.) But all student soldiers or seamen who continue to display competence for the specialties they are pursuing, or exhibit the qualifications requisite for an officer, should be kept in attendance at educational institutions until they have completed their special training. If the draft age is lowered to 18, as now seems likely, assignments should be made from the draft to the colleges in the required numbers. Teachers of military age should be commissioned and assigned to the institutions in sufficient numbers to provide the necessary amount and quality of instruction. Military training should constitute a reasonable percentage of the student's program. A joint agency representing the War and Navy Departments and the Manpower Commission—

or at least an authoritative single agency in each department with active liaison between them—should be set up to conduct the relations of the government with the educational institutions. And this step should be taken now.

THE WAR AND LIBERAL EDUCATION¹

By RAYMOND GRAM SWING

In a broadcast I made on the first of January, this year, looking ahead to the effect the war was going to have on the American people, I said that if it brings heavy Axis blows, and a certain measure of Axis successes, and calls on Americans to reduce their standard of life at the same time, much patience, much clear thinking, and a high degree of faith will be needed. Shortages will have to be borne with resignation, good things like education will have to be cut down, and the wide range of nonessentials in home life will have to be narrowed down almost to the vanishing point. Let me confess that I was quite wrong as to when this was going to happen. I thought it would come to pass this year. And it hasn't. It has taken longer to organize the country on a war footing than I had foreseen. But it will happen next year. But I want to report on one passage of the prediction, the effect of the war on education. You will have some intimations of it. But probably not enough, because the manpower problem, as I have said before, is not being publicly discussed, and the public so far has no chance at all to take part in guiding the policy. Indeed, there seems to be no master plan of the war to which the manpower problem can be referred, and our distribution of manpower is being decided on a basis of compromise between the competing elements in our national life. Thus the Army, the Navy, industry, agriculture, all need men if the war is to be won. But it still is not clear what kind of war it is to be, how large the Army really needs to be, and so how many men are needed to win it. In this competition for manpower, one basic factor is not being given any weight to speak of, and that is the needs of America after the war. It is not part and parcel of the manpower study that we are fighting the war to provide us a peace, and that

¹ From a radio address of November 5, 1942.

America at peace needs men and women trained for industry, science, leadership, and that without them it will come out definitely impaired. And here is where the effect of the use of manpower touches the colleges, and their future. I say touches, but I should better say side-swipes them. And I should better say, too, the liberal colleges. For our technical schools probably will not be much damaged.

Liberal education has been part of America from the earliest days of the colonies. We are the first nation which ever determined to provide a free education to its children, and we have sent a larger proportion of our young people to higher schools than any other nation in the world. We are what we are, in part because of the place of liberal education in our civilization. Nobody denies that today, certainly not the men who are working at the manpower problem for the Army and Navy. They, however, are quite properly laying their hands on the young men they need for the armed services, and are quite properly concerned in giving them the preparation they need for the armed services and nothing else. It is not their job to be planning the culture and civilization of a postwar America. I can say they are doing their particular tasks with conscience and ability. And they are quite aware of the impact their policies will have on American colleges. They are at all pains to use the colleges as they exist wherever possible. They are going to use the portions of existing faculties that fit into military and naval preparation. But it is undeniable that in the draft of eighteen and nineteen year-olds, they are stripping the colleges of more than two-thirds of their men students in these age groups. Let me, as an aside, say that personally I think they are right in wanting eighteen and nineteen year-olds in the fighting services, for young men do make the best combat troops. And for my part I would not want their use of them restricted by any artificial ruling.

II

Both the Army and Navy expect to place in the colleges a vast number of young men for special preparation for military or naval service. The number is not yet announced, but it will be more perhaps than two-thirds of all the men in freshman classes last

year. The Army and Navy will pay for their preparation, and the Navy will give quite an education, as well as training. The services are going to select these men on a democratic basis, which means without consideration of the student's ability to pay, and with consideration solely of his individual qualifications. This means that some persons who would not have had any education are going to get a partial one. It means, too, that many schools will be able to carry on, and will find they can adapt part of their faculties to the curriculum laid down by the armed forces. But that means too, that the education or training given these young men fits them primarily and almost exclusively to be fighters and the leaders of fighters. That, I think, is as it should be. It is not the job of the Army and Navy, faced with war, to do anything else. As to particular groups of students, the doctors and dentists will be allowed to finish their educations. So will engineers and technical persons needed in the armed forces. Certain sciences will not be so favored. There will be no law students whatever, not out of the physically fit men students. There will be no able-bodied young men specializing in civil government, in economics, political science, sociology, all the skills that will be needed in maintaining our health as a democracy after the war. All right, if that is what the war costs, that is what it costs.

But is it what the war needs to cost? That is a question I am unable to answer, and I know nobody who can. We seem to have no master plan which sets our manpower schedule on the basis of an agreed United Nations policy. Therefore, we do not know whether we need to take this and that group including the eighteen and nineteen year-olds to make soldiers of them all. Perhaps we do. If we do, we should take them. I only say it would be folly to take them all if we don't need them all.

III

But, assuming that we do need them, is it necessary to crush liberal education, which this program does? Here an answer is given in Washington that twenty-five to thirty-three per cent of the young men will not meet physical requirements and so can go on with their educations. And then there are the women. That is, the immediate postwar world will have to depend more than

it ever has before on the leadership of women, and on men who are physically substandard. As far as it concerns the women that is almost a sensational statement, but if that is what the war means, it has to be accepted. And by that statement, the women, and the men who fail to pass physical examination, should be included in any plan for education in wartime. And if there were assured an education, most of the liberal colleges would be able to carry on and they would be saved for a peacetime civilization. Then, there would be no impairment of our education facilities, there would, at the most, be a shift in the personnel of our college graduates, with far greater dependence on women.

In addition, the men in the armed forces, as soon as the war ends, could be given an education of sorts even before they are demobilized, and a good many of them could be rushed back to the colleges to receive as good training for civilian life as they had for military life. That all adds up to a fascinating and in the main a satisfactory program. But let me break the news to you that this is not the program being drafted in Washington today. Nobody is speaking for postwar America, for peacetime civilization. Nobody is making sure that the liberal colleges can do the work which in a sense is now more important than ever before. For the training of civilians for peacetime life would need public money, and that would have to be voted by Congress. And if there were a plan to re-educate fighters into civilians after the armistice, that also would need money. I am not saying that some civilian policy is not going to emerge from the situation. But I can assure you it is not part and parcel of the approach to the problem of manpower for Army, Navy, and industry today. There have been proposals for the federal subsidy of colleges. That might be the first step toward government dominated education. A better solution would be the subsidy of students. It would be wise to start now to train the women for the important responsibilities they will have to bear, and the men found unfit for military service. They, too, can be chosen on a democratic basis. It should be possible to give them scholarships combined with war work, so that they make a contribution to the country at the same time that the country makes a contribution to them.

This is no insoluble problem, no more so than training men for fighting. But somebody has to be doing it, and doing it as part of any wise over-all administration of manpower. The war does come first, but that doesn't mean that other education must be neglected. Second things still come second, and the future of peacetime America is worth farsighted treatment. It needs it now, before it is too late.

THE SCHOLAR IN WARTIME¹

By EDGAR H. STURTEVANT

Yale University

The public has been pretty well informed about the effects of this war upon the colleges. Many students have voluntarily enlisted in the armed forces, and many young men and women who would normally have entered college are now employed in the industries that are essential to the war. The colleges, on their part, have speeded up their programs by shortening vacations, so that their students may finish the college course sooner. The emphasis has suddenly been shifted to certain subjects, notably mathematics, that are demanded by the Army, and certain others, notably physics and chemistry, that are demanded by the war industries.

Now the selective service boards are calling up ever larger proportions of the young men above twenty, and everyone expects many of those above eighteen to be called within the next few months. It has been estimated that within a year the total enrollment of men in the colleges, including those who are allowed to remain for special training designed to fit them for commissions in the Army or the Navy, may not be more than fifty or sixty per cent of normal.

It might seem to follow that there will soon be more college teachers than will be needed. Of course a good many of the younger teachers are going into war or industry, but no one imagines that any considerable proportion of the professors can be transformed into good soldiers, or efficient workmen; they aren't that kind of men. The fact is, however, that the colleges are faced with a serious shortage of teachers except in a few subjects such as English, German, French, Latin, and the Fine Arts.

The reason is that this war differs from all previous wars in making large use of expert knowledge. Everyone knows that me-

¹ Reprinted from the *Illinois College Alumni Quarterly*, Vol. 20, No. 4, October, 1942.

chanical equipment is now of overwhelming importance. Neither infantry nor ships can any longer be used effectively without the support of huge numbers of aircraft. Even on its own proper plane, infantry must be accompanied by tanks instead of by cavalry, and must include numerous machine guns. These and many other mechanical features of modern warfare greatly increase the difficulty of supply. Obviously this war has at least as much need of engineering skill as of strategic or tactical skill. And, as always, applied science depends upon pure science. The Army and the Navy have drawn off great numbers of our physicists, chemists, and mathematicians, and most of those still left in their laboratories have ceased their personal researches to devote all the time that can be spared from teaching to problems of immediate importance for the war. Many a laboratory now operates twenty-four hours a day, under the protection of armed guards, on problems that may win the war for us. (And let's hope our enemies don't get there first!)

The engineers, physicists, and chemists are inclined to complain that their relation to the war and the government is purely advisory. When they have worked out a new technique they say that it gets scant attention because the "brass-hat" or the politician who has the authority cannot understand what it is all about. Last April *Fortune* published an important and enlightening article on "A Technological High Command" urging, in effect, that the engineers be set above the generals and the war department as far as mechanical equipment is concerned. Possibly such change of organization would speed up a mechanized war; I'm sure I don't know. But, despite all complaints on the part of the scientists, the truth is that the engineers and their collaborators in pure science have never before, in war or in peace, commanded such respect or exercised such influence as they do today.

II

During the war of 1914-1918 the U. S. Army made large use of a simple mental aptitude test to determine which of the new recruits were good material for training as officers. At least a year before this war broke out leading psychologists were requested to prepare several more detailed tests to help find good material for

officers in the several branches of the service. These tests have been in use for months now with excellent results. Many psychologists are employed on such specific problems as these. Does the indescribable noise inside a tank affect a man's efficiency? (Answer: No, but it adds enormously to his fatigue.) What can be done to hasten recovery from the excessive fatigue resulting from operating a tank or an airplane? What sort of a man makes the best pilot for a fighter plane or a bomber, and how can they be detected before training?

To illustrate the ingenuity of some of the specific tests, take the one designed to distinguish a *bona fide* plumber from a recruit, who to avoid serving in the ranks, falsely claims to be a plumber. These men are asked to tell the meaning of several technical terms that any plumber must know; such a test is sure to weed out most of the fakers in a few minutes' time, and the remainder can then be set to work on the job under competent supervision until they actually make good.

The top scholars in economics are needed chiefly for planning activities in Washington. Any sort of planned economy involves the substitution of intelligence for the automatic control of *laissez-faire* economy, and the problems involved are so complicated that the best intelligence is scarcely equal to the task even in peacetime. Under war conditions essential factors are frequently changed overnight; no wonder the government needs the best planning it can get; the real marvel is that the government has found this out. It was not until after the war had started that the Army discovered what a huge business organization was needed for supplying a highly mechanized Army. The economists who specialize in industrial administration, notably the Harvard School of Business, have been of immense service.

III

To show how thoroughly the scholarly resources of the country are being utilized in this war, I want to tell about the suddenly discovered need for users of certain languages. Various European governments have long maintained schools of modern Oriental languages for training prospective diplomats, army officers, and civil servants to serve in or near their colonies in the East. Our

government has not shown any interest even in the native languages of the Philippines, and our universities have been no more catholic than the government, except for a few courses—mostly of very recent establishment—in Chinese and Japanese. About a year and a half ago one branch of the armed forces decided that they needed thirty American citizens of assured loyalty who could use the Japanese language; they discovered that there were not that many available, even if they took all the teachers and thus cut off the supply at the source. The lack was far greater in regard to many other languages, such as Thai (commonly called Siamese), Korean, Malay, the languages of India, Turkish, Persian, the African dialects of Arabic, etc.

The situation would have been desperate if it were not for a small group of scholars who had developed an effective technique for learning and analyzing unwritten languages. Professor Franz Boas of Columbia University long ago devoted himself to getting a record of as many as possible of the rapidly disappearing languages of the American Indians. Other scholars before him had seen the scientific importance of this task, but Boas realized more fully the necessity for accurate phonetic recording, and his infectious enthusiasm turned the attention of a number of gifted students in this direction. Two of these, Edward Sapir and Leonard Bloomfield, both formerly of Chicago and later of Yale, developed the technique they had learned from Boas and passed it on in improved form to a younger generation. These three men and their associates have founded a thriving new discipline; we linguists call them Americanists. A number of them secured appointments in departments of anthropology or in museums that specialized in Indian culture, but several of them had to live from hand to mouth on research fellowships and various odd jobs. Their enthusiasm for studying Indian languages enabled them to carry on in spite of all discouragements until the war brought sudden need for their peculiar abilities.

For it is obvious that the best method of recording and analyzing an unwritten language is also the best method to use on any language; all language is speech, and writing, no matter how ancient and glorious its literature, is only an imperfect representation of speech.

A timely subvention of the Rockefeller Foundation to the American Council of Learned Societies has made it possible to put a number of young Americanists and other trained linguists to work on Oriental languages immediately needed for purposes connected with the war. So now Thai is being recorded and analyzed at the University of Michigan, Turkish in Mexico City and at Indiana University, Persian at Columbia, Malay at Yale, several dialects of Arabic at the University of Pennsylvania, to mention only a few of the projects that have made most noteworthy progress.

At first the effort was merely to take down words and texts from the lips of native informants and to analyze this material by the method familiar to Americanists. The net result was expected to be in each case a reliable and usable grammar and dictionary. This would have been eminently worth while, since practically all the existing grammars of exotic languages and most of those of even the more familiar languages are useless or nearly so. They are incomplete, and distorted by the fatal effort to fit them to the Procrustean bed of Latin grammar.

But presently it was seen that after an expert linguist has found a satisfactory native informant and has worked with him for a few weeks, he can bring in a group of students and guide them in securing the required information direct from the informant, much as a teacher of science guides the laboratory work of his students. It is not necessary for him first to become an adept in the language.

This method has been made more efficient by combination with another technical procedure that has had a longer history in this country, but that has scarcely begun to make its way in the colleges. It is well known that a beginner in a language should be immersed in it to the exclusion of competing linguistic experience, as far as this is possible. As long as the student lives at home or in a college it is probably necessary for him to continue the use of his own language to some extent. It is, however, possible for him to concentrate his attention upon this single study for a period of months instead of trying to break into a language by devoting only a small fraction of his working time to it. To be sure, that sort of thing upsets our academic program frightfully, but it is the most effective way to begin a language without going to the country where it is spoken.

We already have experience which shows that marvelous results can be obtained from an intensive course conducted by an expert linguist assisted by one or more informants. If the colleges will revise their schedules to permit a student to concentrate upon a language during his first few months' study of it, and if they will finance the employment of native informants (as they now provide laboratories for their students of physics), we may hope to see a new era in the teaching of modern languages. Thus it is that pure science—mere idle curiosity, it has been called—often leads to results that are severely practical.

It was suggested the other day at a meeting of the American Chemical Society that the intensive war time research may give us, when the war is over, "ten to a hundred times" what we had before in the way of raw materials, while motor cars of the newest models, now "frozen" in dealers' show windows, will be, in effect, two decades out of date. In the teaching of languages we can hope for no such startling advances as that, but, if we utilize our opportunities, we may be able really to teach languages as only a very few institutions have hitherto succeeded in doing.

CAN WE EDUCATE FOR DEMOCRACY?¹

By CHRISTIAN GAUSS

Princeton University

No country has ever possessed a stronger faith in education than we in America. We, the professors who owe our positions and status to this faith, have been quite willing to believe and to have the country believe that education is the salvation of democracy. The time has clearly arrived when as Americans we should re-examine the assumptions on which we have based our procedure.

Only rarely have heretics arisen in our ranks. Older professors can still recall the shock we experienced when early in this century at a meeting of one of our learned societies the late William James confessed that he had come to have very serious doubts as to whether education, as such, really was the salvation of democracy. He explained that for some years he had read the Boston papers and whenever he had found a story of subversion of democracy, of graft or political corruption, and had continued reading long enough he almost invariably discovered that the master mind out in the offing was a college graduate and often, alas, a graduate of his own college, Harvard.

We educate men for the law, for medicine, for engineering, for scientific research. Russia has educated for communism; Germany for Nazism. It is possible, in some measure at least, to educate for citizenship in a democracy. The question is not, can it be done, but have we, the professors, done it? We must, however, be careful not to put the cart before the horse. It was not communistic education which begot the Soviets nor Nazi education which begot Hitlerism. It was the other way around. Only after

¹ Address given before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, December, 1941, Dallas, Texas. This was the seventh in the series presented annually by Phi Beta Kappa. Reprinted from *The American Scholar*, Vol. 11, No. 3, Summer, 1942.

the Soviets and National Socialism had established their political regimes were they able to educate for them.

Let not the spirit of the professor be proud. In our age political regimes usually dominate educational systems. It is easier to educate for a political regime, even democracy, after it has been soundly established. If as teachers we wish to educate for democracy we must first as citizens do everything in our power to make democracy an effective political system.

Historians of our earlier period never tire of comparing the level of political capacity in our Continental Congress and Constitutional Convention with the lower level of today. For educational purposes, if for no other, we must send abler men to the Senate and House and help to create for the representatives of democracy a higher degree of respect. The intelligent student does some thinking for himself. He will discount heavily all he is told in-course so long as we in our communities send to Washington egregious nincompoops and political adventurers. If we as citizens allow democracy to become weak, education for democracy is weakened as well. That error must be corrected at the source by us as citizens and not left hopefully to our schools and colleges. So, too, if we wish our students to believe in democracy we must make democratic processes effective on our campuses. Like charity, democracy begins at home. When we ask the question whether our higher educational system has disposed college graduates to take a more active interest in the actual working of the democratic process in their communities, the answer must be in the negative.

Dean Mosher of Syracuse has made a survey of the character and educational background of 4000 local party committeemen in the cities of New York State. These committeemen form the base of the democratic pyramid and give democracy its life and direction. Of this group 55 per cent had never gone beyond grammar school, 33 per cent had enrolled in high school and only 12 per cent had ever received any college training. This figure should probably be discounted further since 40 per cent of those who possessed any academic training were lawyers and there are those uncharitable enough to suggest that young lawyers sometimes seek election as committeemen not so much to further democratic government as to further their private legal careers. It seems that

the education our universities offer does not encourage our graduates to take off their coats and do their part to make democracy work.

Another fact should give us pause. The German universities in 1933 were still in many respects like our own higher institutions of learning. They offered very little resistance to the advance of Hitler's antidemocratic movement—far less, for instance, than the Catholic or Protestant clergy. They did not even make a respectable attempt to protect freedom of speech or freedom of inquiry within their own faculties.

II

The liberal tradition was the arsenal from which the democracies drew not only their forms of procedure but also their moral fervor. If some of the elements in that tradition have been lost or obscured it is natural to inquire whether there has also been a weakening in our education for democracy.

We cannot here discuss in detail all the elements entering into liberalism. Most of us would probably agree with the recent historian, George W. Sabine, that "throughout its history, liberalism has been first and foremost a belief in the supreme social value of intelligence" and also a belief "in the great utility of intelligence or reason as a force in social and political problems." The reason in which it believed was not the disembodied reason of angels nor yet the reason of an expert or a Fuehrer, but reason incorporated in animal man, limited by emotional needs and the flesh and blood urges conditioning the lives even of men of good will. It was assumed that this faith in collective reason would constantly make for the curbing of arbitrary authoritarian processes, the extension of the suffrage and the acceptance of majority rule.

One further point calls for particular emphasis if we are to understand the essential nature of the democratic process. If the majority cannot be expected to be right and the decision of majorities is to be accepted provisionally only, why waste time in cumbersome and often unedifying elections? The central aspect of the liberal tradition is too often overlooked and too often misrepresented. In that tradition intelligence is regarded as so im-

portant an element in human personality that you and I, the butcher, the baker, the candlestickmaker, have the right to be convinced and the right to protest until we are. It is not fair to persons merely to order them about, to push them around. It is not fair, as Kant believed, to treat men as means. The person is an end in himself. That is why you must do unto him as you would have him do unto you. This element in the liberal faith lies behind our Bill of Rights and guarantees us freedom of conscience, freedom of speech, freedom of discussion. These rights are vouchsafed not as a matter of expediency. *They are inherent in the nature and dignity of man.* When you deny them you maim and cripple a human soul. You treat him not as a citizen but as a slave.

These rights, then, are not political rights only. They are something far more important. They are *moral rights* and, above all, *moral obligations*. In respecting them we pay our tribute to the nature of man as understood by our greatest teachers and by the founder of that religion which lies behind our Western civilization. The refusal to accept these moral concepts is the essence of the revolt against the liberal and democratic tradition. It is these rights and obligations that we are fighting for and if we are educating for democracy we must make this point clear to every student in every school and college.

All of us will admit that the movement toward liberalism and democracy was strong in America in the years leading to the Declaration of Independence and the formulation of the Bill of Rights. It will be worth our while to examine briefly the doctrine that informed them, and then to consider the major changes that since 1776 have been introduced into our educational system and in what respects they may be operating to weaken that doctrine.

When we reread the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution with its Bill of Rights, it is immediately evident that the aim of the Continental Congress and of the Constitutional Convention was not to found a nationalistic state but an ideal democracy. Such rights as they seek to establish are not limited by considerations of race or creed. Neither the word *Anglo-Saxon* nor the word *American* occurs in either document.

The most striking sentence and the most frequently quoted is

that in which the essence of the liberal tradition, the "inalienable rights of man," is affirmed. These rights are claimed not for the members of any particular nation-state but for all mankind. Jefferson did not begin "When in the history of English colonies." His frame of reference was much larger—"When in the course of human events." He believed his Declaration was made necessary by "a decent respect for the opinions of mankind." Such convictions constitute what the historian Carl Becker and many others have called the Spirit of 1776. The justification for *liberté, égalité, fraternité* in the French Revolution is drawn from this same larger frame of reference. That was the essence of the liberal tradition in the days when our democracy was founded.

The most important single phenomenon in the subsequent history of our Western culture is the ever-increasing attempt to substitute the nation for mankind as the point of reference from which economic and political systems are to be judged. This has been true both in America and abroad. Historians are fond of pointing out to us the great gains made by the spirit of liberalism during the 19th century. Many of our departments of history and government imply that liberalism and nationalism go hand in hand. I believe they are wrong. It is true that liberals almost everywhere gave their support to the movements making for the formation of nation-states. This was so because in particular cases this movement was also a struggle for emancipation from older oppressive forms of authoritarianism.

If we are to educate for democracy we must make it plain that liberalism as exemplified in our Declaration of Independence and Bill of Rights and nationalism as we have seen it in operation in the 20th century are irreconcilably opposed.

Nor can we continue to tell our students that all this was happening in benighted Europe only. We must point out that it was happening in the United States as well. If our aim was once to make of these states an ideal democracy with a world frame of reference, there is unwelcome evidence to indicate that we have become an exclusive nation-state. Anyone who reads our daily press or follows the investigations conducted by Congressional committees may well reach the conclusion that the greatest crime today is not to be guilty of undemocratic, but to be guilty of un-

American, activities. Democratic and American have ceased to be synonymous. Much as we may dislike to admit it, we must face the fact that nowhere has the attempt to equate the virtues of a particular nation with the highest good gone further than in Germany and the United States. Much as it may hurt to have to confess it, only we and the Germans have a word for it. *Deutschtum* and *Americanism* represent to a large part of the German and the American populations the summation of all the virtues. In pre-Vichy France no such noun as *Frenchism* had yet gained currency. In Great Britain, *Englishism* or *Britishism* still suggests the inadequate and the provincial.

Anyone who with an open mind compares the college catalogues of 1776 with college catalogues of 1942 will make a striking discovery. It is this. We have seriously altered the spirit of our higher education. In the past 75 years at an ever-accelerating rate we have been substituting the historical and the nationalistic standpoint for what may properly be called the humanistic, or philosophical. By humanistic I mean the spirit in which the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights were conceived. The humanists who conceived them believed that in spite of all divergences it was possible for men of good will to formulate aims and principles which corresponded to the inherent needs of human nature—which possessed, in other words, a common human denominator.

Without in the least advocating a return to the limited curriculum of '76 I have no hesitation in saying that if we are to educate for democracy in 1942 we must return more closely to its spirit. The curriculum of all our colleges during the first half century of our republic and in many of them until much later conformed to a readily recognizable central idea. The student was to be given the best that had been known and thought in the world in religion, literature, and philosophy. This would provide him with standards for discovering what was good, what was beautiful and what was true. It was assumed that these concepts were generally valid.

These subjects were called the humanities since it was assumed that they possessed a common human denominator. The colleges recognized that it would be as idle to speak of humanities without

such a common basis as it would be to speak of science if there were no discoverable principles or laws. Philosophy, as the motto of Phi Beta Kappa has it, was a unifying principle and the guide of life. Although Greek and Roman literature were studied they were taught not by professors of Greek or Roman literature as such but by professors of belles-lettres who believed that masterpieces in all languages were marked by a recognizable kinship. That scholarship and teaching were often hopelessly inadequate is here beside the mark. We are dealing here only with the spirit in which education for democracy was conducted.

History as a particular discipline calling for specially trained professors was conspicuously absent. The first professorship of history, as such, was not founded until 1838 when Jared Sparks was appointed at Harvard.

A glance at catalogues of 1941 shows how completely we have changed all that. Of the courses in the "cultural subjects" the immense majority are now presented not from a philosophical or humanistic but from an historical and nationalistic standpoint. Literature, even great literature, is assumed to be the product of incommensurable nations and an ever-changing *Zeitgeist*. Today, we teach courses in Italian literature of the 14th century, French literature of the 16th, German literature of the 18th, and American literature of the Colonial period. The same is true of courses in philosophy or in innumerable nationalistic cultures. No common human denominator is assumed to exist. The emphasis is everywhere upon the unique and the incommensurable.

We have sought to find the essential meaning of life not as our forefathers did, in those elements which unite men, but in those which divide them. These differences are assumed to be irremediable. When we professors of French literature expound Balzac or George Sand our student is taught to believe that their peasants are irreconcilably French. We overlook as insignificant the fact that these French peasants with their land hunger and attachment to the soil are fundamentally and in spirit far more like our Vermont farmers than they are like the Parisian *rentiers*.

Much may be gained from historical analysis properly applied but unless it is counterbalanced by the application of unifying principles it will remain what it has become in our colleges—the

most powerful dissolvent of those humanistic convictions which gave us the Spirit of 1776.

It is interesting to note that in the opinion of the greatest living German historian, Meinicke, the modern historical movement—*Historismus*—began with Möser who wrote his history of Osnabrück in 1768. Möser is credited with having founded the modern school of history because he denied that there ever was any such thing as a "natural right." There are only specific rights arising out of particular situations for reasons discoverable by the historians. With only slight exaggeration this amounts to saying that if you are born a slave there is historical warrant for that fact and that's all there is to it. You should remain a slave, wait quietly until some historical force emancipates you: then only will you have a historical right to be free. The rights men enjoy, in other words, are not moral rights. They are the momentary historical products of time and geography. Notions very closely akin to these lie at the basis of much, if not most, of the historical teaching we have substituted for the older humanities. Working in this spirit our historians, even our American historians, do not explain to our students the principles of 1776. They explain them away as the momentary product of 18th century rationalism. This was, they tell us, a limited and inadequate philosophy and we cannot blame Jefferson and the Signers for accepting it. Most intellectuals of those days did. But history has changed all that. America is today something quite different. It is not the attempt to realize general principles. The United States is something particular and unique, the product only of its own particular and unique past. Germany, Italy, and Japan are also explained as unique products of their unique pasts: what they have been doing has therefore been none of our business. It was the prevalence of this doctrine, particularly in our departments of history—even American history—that explains the failure of our colleges to lead the country or to prepare it for the ordeal it is now facing in common with other nations.

III

The curriculum of our colleges of 1776 gave relatively little space to work in the sciences. The problem which science has

forced upon education for democracy is of a quite different nature. Science has not altered its attitude toward the materials with which it deals. There is nothing in the method of the modern scientist that would greatly have astonished the student of "natural philosophy" in 1776. Our problem lies in the fact that the scientists have accomplished not too little but too much. For an understanding of the rôle that science has played in shaping our contemporary culture there is probably no safer guide than George Sarton, the distinguished historian of science. Sarton has no doubt that scientific knowledge has progressed, and uses an excellent index to prove his point. Darmstaedter's *Handbook for the History of the Natural Sciences and Technology* lists in succession all the important scientific discoveries made in these fields from 3500 B.C. to 1908 A.D. The left-hand column lists the historical period covered. The right-hand column gives the percentage of significant scientific discoveries made in that period. Here briefly, is the summary of his findings:

	Per cent
35 centuries B.C.	3
Cents. I to XV	4
XVI	3
XVII	5
XVIII	11
XIX	67
Years 1901-08	7

Of the total number of scientific discoveries listed only 3 per cent were made in the 35 centuries B.C. Since Darmstaedter's list ends with 1908 let us confine our comparison to the 19th century.

In that single century scientists made more than 22 times as many significant discoveries as were made in the 35 centuries which included all the achievements of the ancient Chinese, Persians, Chaldeans, Egyptians, Greeks, and much of the work of the Romans. What this means in terms of man's increased mastery over nature staggers the imagination. Among these discoveries were, of course, many that have resulted in labor-saving devices, thus increasing the potential output of the individual man everywhere.

There was also much that we might call "dynamite" in these discoveries; but perhaps most significant of all were those making for more rapid and extensive transportation and communication. Man's mastery of earth's resources on so unprecedented a scale clearly called for an extension of our narrower frames of nationalistic reference in economics, politics, social institutions.

We might sum it up as follows. Non-nationalistic science working cooperatively, recognizing no frontiers, has confronted nationalistic politics with a problem which nationalistic politics has failed to solve. The means for vastly increasing human welfare have been at hand for 40 years. There has been some increase in individual well-being in some countries and some fields. We need not accept the lavish estimates of the technocrats but the actual increase is ridiculously small, out of all proportion to the possibilities open, and the sense of personal insecurity and frustration has increased throughout the world.

It is this sense of deprivation, of benefits withheld, which has begotten envy and suspicion between class and class, between nation and nation. The laborer blames his employer, the employer blames his government, the government blames other governments or a vague "international situation." In the language of pre-depression optimists, in this 20th century humanity seemed all set to cut a colossal melon and nothing happened. Without attempting to list all the factors involved we recognize, of course, that in all countries much has been going into socially useless bombers and battleships, weapons far more destructive and more expensive than any we had ever known before; but most of our productive potentialities remain undeveloped because of imagined lack of outlet and a very real and quite understandable lack of confidence in the future on the part of producers.

The debate between the have and have-not nations, Japan's insistence upon her exclusive right to exploit a "co-prosperity sphere" in Asia, Hitler's demand for *Lebensraum* and a new order, Soviet communism, our social-security legislation, our labor troubles—all point back to this same general situation. Owing in substantial part to a loss of confidence in a future potentially far richer than any era in the past, the liberals' earlier faith in the possibility of human progress has largely disappeared.

Those who have read some of the addresses made by the presidents of the American Association for the Advancement of Science before our own economic depression became serious may have noticed that the dominant note in many of them was that we were rather rapidly approaching the millennium. They intimated that if intellectual workers in other fields would only take the scientist's objective and disinterested attitude toward the problems of political and social organization—and sometimes even toward their own personal problems—these would soon be solved. I have not noticed that in faculty meetings, when a problem concerning the rights and privileges of a scientific department or professor were called into question, the scientists were any less impassioned in defense of their prerogatives than the plain humanist or historian. Nor should we expect it.

The great body of scientific research, properly so-called, deals with impersonal problems and it deals with them impersonally, which means amorally. And that is as it should be. We cannot expect that the average man or even the scientist who is a parent or citizen will remain unmoved when his child or his neighbor is being beaten or robbed. What progress men have made toward liberty and justice has only been made because they hated slavery and injustice. Higher education must consider whether the most serious single cause for the weakening of the liberal tradition does not lie precisely in the fact that humanists and historians, cowed by the success of scientists, have developed an inferiority complex and have become afraid to pronounce moral and esthetic judgments. They have forgotten that the liberal tradition rested upon moral principles which it was their particular duty to defend. The pretensions of the newer, anarchical, totalitarian, or nationalistic states can be curbed only if we reaffirm those principles.

When a robber state attacks its neighbor in the more closely knit world that science has created, neutrality is not a virtue but makes for international anarchy just as the indifference of the citizen makes for municipal corruption. It is an illusion then for scientists to believe that the application of their methods can make men better. No matter how much you prolong his life or increase his goods, Adam remains old Adam. Even in the Garden of Eden he wanted more than the Lord felt it safe to give him. He

probably always will want more. Science cannot make him better. It can only make him better off. That is all we have a right to expect from the scientist; and so far as the relations of nation to nation and man to man are concerned, at this point some one else must take over.

Some years before the outbreak of the second world war it became clearly evident that something was seriously wrong with our chaotic modern culture. An English bishop earnestly advocated a moratorium upon scientific research. He found much support in our panic-stricken world. Let us admit that the results of scientific research may be used for good or ill; yet the demand that the very branch of human activity which had been looked upon as the hope of the world must cease, may well be regarded as an indication of the approaching bankruptcy of our civilization. When it has ceased to be safe for men to understand the nature of their world, that culture which began with the Greeks and of which our own is a part is nearing its end.

Science, then, is the problem child or the *enfant terrible* of our modern culture. It is forever doing the unexpected and calling upon us for radical readjustments to new situations for which our humanists have dismally failed to prepare us and which our regressive nationalistic, political establishments, including the democracies, are increasingly unable to meet. Instead of lamenting the "decline of the humanities" and assuming that this decline can be corrected by forcing students to take more courses in nationalistic literature or philosophy or history, we must call for an earnest, honest reappraisal of the function of humanistic studies in the light of the unrealized possibilities opened to mankind. It is our failure to realize these possibilities that has led to the "bankruptcy of liberalism" and the "crisis of democracy." It is not the devil that has brought us, the innocent and virtuous humanists, to this pass. It is our own lack of vision. If the humanist has a function it is to evaluate and tell us what elements in life, what creations in art, are worth while, have a bearing upon the welfare of man. This means *passing judgments*, an art the humanist has forgotten. If there is anything admirable to us in the life or the philosophy of Socrates, that is where our emphasis belongs. If there is anything treasurable for all men in Sophocles, or Virgil, or

Dante, or Cervantes, or Molière, or Goethe, we must seek it out. The whole trend of our higher education has been to escape from this necessity and to take refuge in watching the tumbling bits of colored glass forever rearranging themselves in the fascinating but meaningless kaleidoscope of history.

That is why the members of the leading school of historical thinking in the 19th century could tell us proudly that "there can be a history of philosophy but no philosophy of history" and why one of our best-known contemporary philosophers, Ortega y Gasset, can tell us that "man has no nature: he has only a history."

For this reason the humanist has not known what to do with primary religious or ethical data like the Sermon on the Mount. They do not find admission to courses in the history of philosophy or in the history of literature. It is only by accident that the Bible comes into English literature via the King James version. It enters not by virtue of its significance but only of its language. It is such magnificent English! But since that translation was made before our colonies began to produce literature of their own, this book in many cases finds no place whatever in courses on American literature or American culture. We leave such documents to departments of religion. And departments of religion are not central; they are marginal to our modern curricula. We do not know whether professors of religion are humanists or not. In many cases they are not. They too find safety in making the historical approach.

IV

From the standpoint of our situation today the most grievous error of our higher education was our failure to grasp the nature of the relationship between liberalism and democracy on the one hand and nationalism on the other. This confusion to which our over-historicized educational system contributed reached its height in the discussions before and during the shaping of the Treaty of Versailles. There has been much criticism of that Treaty. It is impossible to defend some of the conditions imposed upon Germany but it is certainly not those conditions alone that have brought us or Germany to this pass. Italy and Japan were on the winning side in 1918 and the Falangists in Spain were not

involved in that world war. Something had gone wrong within the body of our culture. The hopeless contradictions of that Treaty grow out of our effort to "save democracy" by erecting as an absolute principle the "right of self-determination." The nation could do as it would within its borders. It could establish a state religion and persecute dissenters. It could build tariff walls as high as it pleased. It could drive citizens beyond its frontiers and bring noncitizens inside. We imagined that such national frontiers were fixed and final. They were never of less importance. We are only beginning to realize that unless certain minimal moral rights are guaranteed to all peoples—which means a limitation on national sovereignties—democracy is no longer safe.

It is a curious fact that all this had happened at a time when the liberal tradition seemed to have proved a fundamental assumption in its doctrine: that man's intelligence, his reason, is his highest quality. Science, accepting that principle, was already offering us a new earth, a new and far richer world. It had proved the fundamental principle of the Greeks—that the world we live in constitutes a cosmos. It is a world governed by laws discoverable, in part at least, by the human reason. Modern science, as the greatest cooperative enterprise along nonnationalistic lines upon which man has ever embarked, has proved itself the most successful activity of the human spirit.

As someone has said, the great tragedy of our time is that we are citizens of the world and do not yet know it. "United we stand, divided we fall" is truer of our democratic nations than it ever was before. Neither Western civilization nor peace is possible in a world that refuses to recognize any common underlying principle. We knew this in 1776. The world of man as well as the world of things is a cosmic world. It too is governed, in so far as it can be governed at all, by laws, moral laws, which the individual man and nation may at times violate but which if consistently ignored by men and by nations spell the ruination of our democratic culture.

In their enthusiasm for the purely analytical, historical approach which offered nothing constructive, our colleges have forgotten this lesson and have often failed to impress it upon the generation now coming on. It is only when we make this moral truth central to our teaching that we can effectively educate for democracy.

THE LECTURE SYSTEM

By JOHN ISE

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Among the manifold blessings enjoyed by teachers generally, without doubt the most important is the lecture system. Few of the men and women who live the rich, full life of the professor realize how much of their happiness is due to the high privilege of lecturing to classes of people who are required to sit attentively, or perhaps even to listen respectfully. The desire to talk is without doubt one of the most common of all human aspirations, one which men in most callings are able to indulge only occasionally and intermittently, perhaps even at some expense—as, for instance, at social gatherings—and never for any considerable time or without interruption, for in any conversation all parties wish to wedge in a word here and there—to share in the joy of talking. No one can have a clear field, and if any one indulges his natural “propensity to talk” at too great length, he may see his audience melting away. The professor is here supremely fortunate. He enjoys the privilege of indulging to a practically unlimited extent the most insistent yearning of the human spirit, is paid for it, and is sure of an audience. He has a system of examinations and grades by which he can command the attention of his audience, however superficial their interest, however inept he may be in holding it. For the students must have degrees, to secure degrees they must have grades, to acquire grades they must take examinations, and to pass examinations they must listen to the lectures, or read the notes of others who have listened. It would be difficult to picture a happier situation—or shall I say “conjuncture”?

The professor of economics does more than talk to his classes—he *lectures*. His position is far more dignified than that of a mere conversationist. Like the prophet and oracle, he looks into the future and deciphers the forms of things to come; like the priest,

he formulates rules, codes, and commandments by which society shall be saved; like the judge, he decides questions of equity and expediency; like Moses, he speaks from the mountain tops of truth and wisdom to his followers in the valley of doubt; like God, he creates children in his own (intellectual) image, and then complains of their manifold sins. It is satisfying to be in a position of so much prestige and authority—even for only an hour; and it is fortunate that professors can enjoy this, since few of them are in a position to enjoy the low but obvious distinction of pecuniary reputability.

II

It is to the lecture system that we must attribute the fine personality so characteristic of professors. Philosophers often speak of the development of personality as the highest aim of life; and through his activity as a lecturer the professor achieves this development in supreme degree. Speaking oracularly to his followers, he develops poise and confidence; speaking much, he develops fluency and clarity of utterance; speaking from well-ordered and seasoned notes, he develops the habit of logical analysis and organization; discussing always matter of deep importance, he develops power and precision of thought. Along with all this, he has his lighter moments, in which he brightens up the discussion with shafts of wit and humor, and with well-chosen and well-tested stories, and so rounds out a full, happy, and balanced personality which commands the affection as well as the respectful admiration of his students. Many students remember the personality of their instructors even after they have forgotten their lectures.

A further advantage of the lecture system is that it is not very hard work for the professor. With well-organized notes before him, he can pursue his subject at a minimum of mental strain, and so reserve his fresh energies for research, for work on committees for the guarding of student morals, and for essential social and civic activities. By lecturing, he also avoids the disturbing effect of questions from the students. It is true that most students do not ask many questions anyhow. The better class of students particularly, trained and refined in the fraternities, do not ask questions,

either because they can think of none to ask, or because they recognize that evidence of interest in class is the unmistakable sign of the roughneck. Yet there are always a few students, unacquainted with the better social traditions, who may ask questions if the professor permits it, and are likely to disturb the smooth flow of the professor's thought. The lecture system of course precludes such irregularities.

Through his practice in the classroom, the professor is competent also to lecture to other groups outside the academic circles, thus expanding and enlarging his influence over a wide area. He lectures to the Y.W.C.A. and the Y.M.C.A., church groups and home missions, societies for the promotion of prohibition and societies for the evasion of prohibition, women's clubs and men's clubs, home study societies, farm organizations, veterans' and patriotic societies, and at high school graduation ceremonies. If there were no lecturing professors, doubtless the Rotary and Kiwanis clubs would soon cease to function, and the number of banquets would be greatly curtailed. We may well say that the lecture system of our universities is thus responsible for much of the best in American life.

There are some educators who insist that the professor should have his lectures printed and hand them out to the class to be read, and that the students could learn better through reading than through listening to lectures. A Harvard study of this question some years ago indicated that the students learned twice as much from printed material as from lectures. It is clear, however, that such procedure would have an unfortunate effect on the development of the professor's personality, and, on the other hand, would deprive the students of the rich benefits of more personal association with their teacher. A university conducted on such a plan would be a dead, soulless institution, quite incapable of attracting young men and women seeking to develop their own personalities. Perhaps even worse, such a pedagogical method would greatly reduce the output of ideas, for in lecturing the professor can enunciate his ideas as fast as they come to him; whereas if he were obliged to wait for the printing press, he would be greatly retarded, and might even find some of his ideas quite out of date before they appeared in print. Students, particularly in the fast-changing

science of economics, want fresh, up-to-date material, which the professor can give only through lectures.

But there would be a further difficulty with the printing of the lectures. Speaking from his notes, the professor has a well-recognized function which perhaps justifies him in signing the pay roll. A good set of notes may serve thus for many years. The professor with such notes is in a position not altogether unlike that of the priest with his handwritten Bible before the days of printing—in a position of monopoly control of the means of salvation. If he were to print and scatter his ideas broadcast, he would have lost his enviable position, and perhaps even his excuse for existence—or at any rate, for signing the pay roll. It is true that he might meet his classes as discussion groups, but in such a democratic function his prestige and authority would be largely gone, and he could scarcely be happy. It seems altogether likely that he would soon be driven to compose another set of lectures, and return to the rôle in which he first found happiness and fulfillment.

The lecture system is a particularly great advantage to young instructors who have just completed their graduate study, and have well-ordered sets of notes from their graduate courses, which they can retail to the students. These young men are able in this way to give courses quite as well as the renowned scholars under whom they have taken their work. Through the miracle of the lecture system, the great thoughts of master minds are thus broadcast in the academic world, in ever-broadening circles. Only a radio hookup could do the work so effectively.

III

But the lecture system is a blessing likewise to the students. Some educators insist that the students should themselves read the books, rather than listen to the professor expound their contents; but such men do not realize how busy the students are, and how exhausted they often are after attending to fraternity activities, pep meetings, class politics and vacations. As a great educator once said, the greatest need of American college students is sleep, which they can often get in class better than anywhere else; or if by reason of professorial exaction or insomnia the students

cannot sleep in class, they can at any rate rest, while listening to the somnolent hum of the professor's voice. Many students even learn to take notes while in a state of complete relaxation, or even in a coma, or they may avail themselves of the economies of the division of labor and take turns in writing notes on the lectures. Professors do not encourage this as much as they should. A classroom in which a professor is lecturing is a very restful place, while a building in which a score of professors are lecturing suggests a symphony hall with the orchestra playing the Moldau River.

There is much economy in the scheme as it now operates. The professor enjoys reading books, picking out odds and ends of information, winnowing out facts and figures, and perhaps even ideas, from scattered sources, and putting them together in new and original patterns. He enjoys this sort of activity, and in time becomes very skillful at it; and in retailing his information to the students he can indicate the important points, saving the students the time and trouble of accumulating unimportant information. If the students were required to read the books themselves, they would have to spend a great deal of time which they need for outside activities, and they could scarcely be expected to enjoy it. Perhaps even worse, they might develop a habit of reading, which would levy so heavily on their time in later years as to compromise their chances of success in life. Not a few students have been ruined in our colleges and universities by being taught to read books. One of the great virtues of the lecture system is that it enables students who have never learned to read to acquire an education. Out in the busy world of later life, the radio and lectures at the Rotary Club enable them to continue their educational advancement, in a certain fashion, without using the unsociable expedient of reading books.

But if the students were required to do their own reading, they would suffer in still other ways. Many students have defective eyesight, which is always likely to grow worse toward the end of the term; and it seems only reasonable courtesy for the professor to do their reading for them. The students would, furthermore, be obliged to do their reading mainly in the library, where the spirit and atmosphere are decidedly gloomy, repressive and unsociable, perhaps even likely to dampen the spirits of sanguine youth and

so to unfit them for the hopeful work world of later years. For students in a school of business this would be particularly unfortunate. It is difficult to imagine worse training for the world of business—for buying, selling, promoting, attending conventions—than four years spent largely in the gray silence of a library, reading books and magazines.

Many professors make their lectures not only quieting and resting but even entertaining, for they have stories appropriately placed among their notes, one to illustrate each point. In their courses there is always something to look forward to, every day. In some fraternity houses there are charts of these courses for freshmen, indicating the date on which each story is due, and on the dates when particularly good stories are scheduled many visitors often come to the class to enjoy the lectures. There are some professors who think this an undignified use of the professor's lecture period, but education must be sold to the people, and there is no better way than this, perhaps. Not quite all professors have the faculty of making lectures interesting and intriguing, to be sure, but those who have not this ability also contribute greatly to the moral development of the students; for listening to dull lectures, like hard work of all kinds, strengthens the moral qualities of the students, the qualities of tenacity, perseverance, and rugged endurance.

Stimulating, scintillating lectures are an indispensable supplement to the textbooks commonly used. It is a standing cause for wonder that professors who can lecture so entertainingly should write dull textbooks; but certain it is that most textbooks are as uninteresting as *Pilgrim's Progress*; and doubtless if the professors should write their lectures down and have them printed, they would merely produce more textbooks. A worse situation could scarcely be imagined. The glowing personality of the professors would be lacking, the warm intimate individuality that lightens up the discussion even of the most abstruse and complicated problems. Looking at the situation broadly, we might well say that what the country needs, next to lower taxes, is more lecturing professors, and an A.A.A. for the output of textbooks.

The use of lectures and textbooks has the final supreme merit that it gives the students a fine sense of completion, of having finished, of being done, of having rounded out their intellectual

figure at all concave salients. Unlike disorganized class discussions, lectures and textbooks give a complete picture, and do not leave the students with a disturbing feeling that their education is still incomplete, that there are still loose ends dangling, that there is still much to learn. Theirs is not an Unfinished Symphony. Four years they have spent distending their minds with systematized and organized information, facts and figures; four years they have devoted to the achievement of mastery of their various fields; and when they have sold their textbooks and dropped the last batch of notes into the waste basket, they face the world with the serene confidence appropriate to those who have completed their preparation for a life of service.

IV

One serious difficulty there is, indeed, with both lectures and textbooks; they are soon out of date. Perhaps on nothing is the rate of obsolescence so high as on economic truth, and the rate appears to be accelerating. The professor, of course, keeps abreast of the times in his lectures, and the textbooks are revised every other year, so the students receive only the freshest of material; but a few years after they have been graduated the knowledge that they accumulated is largely out of date. Some things do not change, it is true. Plato and Aristotle are translated in much the same way from year to year, Adam Smith and Malthus are in the static state, Marshall being now dead, there are no revisions of his work; but the principles of bank management change from year to year, the national debt is revised every month, and the list of alphabetical New Deal agencies changes every week. Much of the up-to-date information that the students gain from lectures and textbooks is stale soon after graduation, or perhaps even before graduation, and the students are faced with the hard necessity of re-education. Just how this can be accomplished is a serious problem. Our graduates, bulging out like bologna sausages with assorted facts and figures, seem generally to lack a capacity for continued development. Perhaps it would be well if the alumni could return to old alma mater every few years and take most of their college courses over again, revive and refresh their waning

intellectual interests, and bring their information down to date; but it is doubtful whether they would find this convenient, or even altogether satisfying. College years are always regarded—in retrospect—as the happiest years of life, but perhaps not many would enjoy reliving them a half dozen times for the sake of keeping abreast of the times. Like sausages, education is subject to the principle of diminishing utility, and the twentieth year in college would not satisfy a very insistent want. Furthermore, the general application of such a scheme would call for a very great expansion of educational plants, including professors and fraternity houses. Altogether it seems definitely impractical.

It has been suggested that the graduation fee be raised to include all later revisions of the textbooks, so that the graduates might keep their information up to date by home study; but since there would be no professors in their homes to explain and interpret and indicate the important points, this would probably be inadequate. Students who have become addicted to the lectures of professors often seem rather helpless without them.

A method of re-education which has gained prestige in recent years is that known as adult education—carried on largely, of course, by professors. This has not been entirely successful, however, for various reasons. In the first place adult education courses lead to no degrees, and students are curiously prone to associating education with degrees. Education alone appears to have relatively small interest for them. In the second place, adult education is generally unrelated to fraternities and social activities, so the better classes of people find little in it to beguile them. The result is that the adult education movement is often regarded as a movement mainly for the lower classes, like the W.P.A. and the Surplus Commodities Corporation. If adult education could somehow be expanded to include dancing and bridge, perhaps be organized in connection with the Rotary and Kiwanis clubs, the D.A.R., and the Chamber of Commerce, it would have a wider appeal. And, finally, there is a growing doubt, on the part of those connected with the movement, whether adults can be educated. There is some evidence that most of the students, even with their young, eager, and plastic minds, and despite their attendance on the professors' lectures, largely evade the educational

process during their four years in college, and that their intellectual disintegration begins the day of the last examination. A few years later they may be past all reclamation.

V

In spite of all these difficulties, our conclusion must be that the lecture system has contributed immeasurably to the happiness of professors, to the contentment of students, and to the glamour and dignity of higher education; indeed, excepting football and fraternities, nothing has so enriched American academic culture. Yet the outlook for this form of recreation is not as bright as we might wish. There have been suggestions that the radio or the victrola be employed for lectures; and of course either of these, although it might raise the quality of the lectures, would gravely curtail the opportunities for lecturing, and would rob the educational process of that priceless ingredient—the personality of the professor. For the latter reason, perhaps neither of these is likely to be used very much.

Far more serious is the threat of the talking cinema. Here is an instrument which could carry not only the scientific content of lectures, but the personality of the professor, the gestures, mannerisms and vocal intonations that mark him out as an individual; and, unlike the radio and victrola, this device could be used in explaining the graphs and mathematical formulae which in recent years have raised some of our social studies to the status of exact sciences. Not only *could* the cinema be used for lectures, but it *is* being employed to some extent, and its use may spread to the classroom. It is quite possible that cinema lectures could be made more attractive to our students than lectures by corporeal professors, since presumably only the most magnetic and glamorous professors would be employed; or perhaps great movie stars could be taught to give the lectures! Here is a real threat to our most cherished professorial privilege, for with the cinema a very few professors could give all the lectures needed; and cinema lectures would last a long time—perhaps longer than most professors' lecture notes. It is well that we should be on our guard. As the danger is great, so must our vigilance be unremitting. Our rallying cry may well be: "The lecture system, it must and shall be preserved!"

THE STUDENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIP AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL

By SIEGMUND A. E. BETZ

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It is very easy, in thinking of student-teacher relationships, to forget the complexity of the participating units. Of this we must first remind ourselves. The only efficient specialist is a piece of machinery, for it is created to do just one thing, and its structure makes possible only those relationships to other machines which its makers desire to effect. These are simple, controllable, unitary. Machinery is free from initiative and development. Its interests are never hard to define, never overlap. Given, therefore, the right belt or gear mesh, a machine sets up clear-cut, teleologically perfect relationships with other machines. A machine can even do this with a human being. Between a good typist and a typewriter there is a relationship which never needs definition, and breaks down only for causes that can easily be analyzed and remedied.

II

How different are relationships between human beings! Getting along with her employer requires much more skill of a typist than getting along with her typewriter, because the employer is, like herself, infinitely more complex. Neither typist nor boss is a specialized tool like the typewriter. Each is a mechanism, if we may use the term, capable not merely of one but of many activities, and is in fact engaged in them. Each becomes a tool for the carrying on of business only by sustained specialization. In the background of a simple relationship, in this case as in any, there lies the versatility of the human character, and the particular relationship that is desired can be maintained only in its milieu of irrelevant purposes and possibilities.

For this reason a human relationship of one category is perpetually haunted by relationships of other categories. Popular humor has celebrated the fact that the boss-typist situation easily turns into the boy-girl situation. More seriously, employer-employee becomes, by a simple reversal, advisee-adviser. Or husband and wife become "co-workers in business." Even, sometimes, there is a complete reversal of dominance; the humble and meek are exalted, and the mighty are put down from their seat. Psychological study during the past quarter century has shown how important are the overtones of other relationships even within the fundamental pattern of the family, until it is evident that in any relationship of human beings, however limited and purposively defined, there are adumbrations of other relationships.

All this is, of course, eminently true of the student-teacher relationship. Moreover, into its particular pattern of conduct and cooperation there are woven strands of very ancient tradition. Teaching methods are inherited rituals as much as they are deliberately devised production methods. Students react to teachers as they have been taught to imagine they should act, even when the actual situation is markedly different from the picture drawn by undergraduate folklore; so that mild young masters of arts are sometimes a little dismayed to find that their first classes show them, among other types of respect, that accorded to a penitentiary guard. Such attitudes are folkways, and at no point in fact can the student-teacher relationship be merely what contemporary needs and purposes rationally would make it. It must to some extent be what it has been, and also what it is yet to become. "Teaching" is a convenient name for a varied, complex activity—perhaps an over-economical name. Too many aspects of the students' and the teachers' personality are involved to make anything but dangerous a glib philosophical realism which assumes the relationship to be simple and purely rational.

III

Perhaps an analysis of "teaching" into its basic psychological and historical components will have some value. But such an analysis must of necessity be qualitative only; we can detect the

presence of certain elements, but cannot measure their amount. For we are dealing with subtle essences, and their proportions will be the same in no two samples.

Oldest basis of the student-teacher relationship is the ancient disciple-master bond. Here the teacher is a sage, a mystically revered purveyor of wisdom. The assumption is that the teacher has not only an abundant store of fact, but also a specialized and unique intuition. To the student's question he has an answer unobtainable elsewhere. Instruction is inseparable from the communication of personality, according to this assumption, and the tradition of learning is an apostolic succession of teachers.

A description of Japan published some years ago tells how in that country if a student knew his father and his teacher both to be in a burning building he would rush to save the teacher first; and how students have been known to commit *hara-kiri* because they had been refused instruction by an admired teacher. An American professor, so far as I know, has yet to be thus fanatically honored. But the Oriental type of student-teacher relationship is not entirely extinct. There's a divinity doth hedge a professor—or at least a good professor—even today. To be sure, large groups of students no longer follow a single professor from university to university, as once they did Abélard; yet whenever a student deliberately and seriously signs up for a course because of an instructor's name, or even chooses a college or university because of the reputation of its faculty, a ghost of the old relationship springs up. Newman's oral tradition is still, to most, indispensable; and it, of course, abides in individual speaking men, and not in even the finest collection of books. Despite the flippant aphorism that a solid university consists primarily of a good library, the fact remains that to students the university is a *collection of human beings* organized about a body of leaders—a faculty or “able group.”

IV

The shift in interest from philosophy and literature to science, however, has given rise to a new tradition of the student-teacher relationship at the college level. Science is nonmystical, impersonal; and the science instructor easily becomes not so much a

priestly master as an elder workman, whose apprentice the student is. The relationship is still personal, but the teacher's leadership is more limited in character.

Certainly overtones of a very similar relationship are present in the teaching of the arts—music, painting, creative writing. This curious parallelism of science and art is due to the fact that in both laboratory science and art the learner must in general recapitulate the experience of the teacher. Manual activity is an integral part of such education, and only by practicing as the teacher has practiced can the student rise to the teacher's level. This very assumption, moreover, is a distinguishing characteristic of such relationship. The student sees clearly how the teacher has come to be where he is, and feels that the same path is open to him. The instructor's power is not heaven-conferred, but won by his own labor. The whole relationship is democratic, since the apprentice has hopes of being a master craftsman. Were it not for an interval of time, he would already stand on a level with his master.

V

A third component of the student-teacher relationship is found, curiously enough, with greater frequency in kindergartens and graduate seminars than in college classes. It is perfectly possible to regard the teacher of a class not as an ordained leader or a master craftsman but as a presiding officer. This status follows from the acceptance of the somewhat debatable article that the student's opinion is just as good as the instructor's.

Hopeful as this type of relationship may be for the encouragement of self-reliance and independence, it would, if it existed anywhere in pure form, be less fruitful than the other two types of relationship mentioned above. It is based, after all, on an elaborate and almost transparent pretense. No class ever mastered a subject through absolutely free discussion, because in practice the discussion never is totally uninhibited. If it were, results would be obviously disastrous. As a matter of fact, the substitution of discussion classes for the paternalism of lectures has not led to the collapse of education or intellectual discipline; the new "presiding professor" is but old "lecturer" writ large, and his relationship to

his students is a democratic form for the old paternalistic substance. Actually the teacher remains high priest and superior workman. He is still not quite one of the boys; but the lie which says he is serves well.

And indeed, if all these types of student-teacher relationships are only partial approximations—crude metaphorical statements—of the unknowably complex reality, perhaps there is no lie after all. The instructor is, of course, a student too, and the more academic humility he has, the more he knows how great is his share in the common human shame of ignorance. He has reason enough to renounce the pedestal.

VI

No rich teaching experience at *any* level can fail to include at least the shadow of each of these three main types of teacher-student contact. Subject matter, the personalities of individual teachers, students, and classes, the peculiar circumstances of time and place, may vary the proportion of their presence. Added to them, too, are other relationships. The similarity of the teacher's rôle to that of a parent contributes its leaven. And simple human friendship seasons all.

The addition of yet another major component to the student-teacher relationship may seem superfluous. Yet at the college level none of the three major types of approach so far discussed is for the present moment of history exactly right. The general assumption is that the freshman year marks the beginning of some degree of adult responsibility. The instructional experience of the student ought to confirm the putting away of childish things. A formula should be available whereby student and instructor could meet as fellow adults transacting business. The formula ought also, to be of universal applicability, to provide sound relationships at a wide range of levels and for varied kinds of subject-matter. Both discipleship and apprenticeship frequently fail as a basis here. The college student has not one teacher but many teachers with many methods. In the nature of things today, he views them with little awe, and often misses the sustained association that the older relationships imply and require. The temper of his generation, moreover, is not strongly hierarchical.

The parliamentary classroom fares little better. As one component in the relationship of student and instructor it is exceedingly useful for its enforcement of salutary humility and cooperation. But at the freshman and sophomore level its fiction is too obvious to form the *basis* of a sound relationship. Unfortunately too, when carried through with sincerity and seriousness below the graduate level, it involves student and instructor in endless waste motion. It is mentally uneconomical.

The solution lies in a realization by student and teacher of one frequently neglected factor; namely, that the college instructor is a professional man. Like the dentist or the physician, he has specialized information. Like the lawyer, he is trained to administer a certain department of life for his clients. The chief obstacle in the way of the general recognition of this factor is the excessive carrying-over into college life of elementary and high school attitudes. Yet the curious gulf of feeling between preparatory-level teachers and college instructors is perhaps due to an unconscious recognition that the latter are, after all, adults rendering professional service to other adults rather than "teachers" standing *in loco parentis*.

Of course, the break with childhood is not complete, and the acceptance of the freshman into adult life is often enough another pious fraud. Nevertheless, the new status can *never* be achieved without bold assumption somewhere along the line, and the challenge to be mature needs to come from the student-teacher relationship as well as from other experiences of the adolescent.

The client-professional man approach to instruction has much to recommend it to these times. It recognizes realistically the instructor's superiority of information and training, and so establishes at once a rationale of leadership. On the other hand it minimizes the professor's extraneous glory, and so allows for a more genuine academic democracy. Today these advantages require little justification.

Consonantly with the opening paragraphs of this paper, this new approach is suggested not as a substitute for the older components in the student-teacher relationship at the college level, but as a new basic ingredient. Students will never cease to be disciples, apprentices, fellow-workers; but their instructors' attitudes toward them must remain wholesomely complex, capable of benign changes of emphasis.

THE FALLACY OF THE REVERSED FUNNEL

By PHILLIPS D. CARLETON

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The article entitled "The Itinerant Instructor" by Bernard N. Schilling, published in the June, 1942 *Bulletin*, analyzes acutely and dramatically a serious dilemma in college teaching today. In that article he discusses all possible remedies and pragmatically selects that one which, he says, will not seriously disturb things as they are.

Anyone who wishes to lessen the evils of temporary academic appointments must offer something which will not seriously disturb things as they are. The budget must not be agitated; the regular course in Freshman English must be left alone; the work of professors of long standing must not be interfered with; and, above all, the system of temporary appointments, whose evils are in question, must not be eliminated.

Mr. Schilling's remedy is guaranteed to do no disturbing: it is the familiar method of inverting the funnel; whereas, before, teachers were welcomed into the opened end of the funnel and gradually eliminated by competition in an overcrowded field, under Mr. Schilling's scheme the teachers will be sorted before they reach the funnel and the capable survivors will be widely disseminated according to need. The scheme has an ingenious plausibility and will doubtless be greeted with cheers by administrative staffs, graduate schools, and those few who expect to survive the ordeal of the funnel tube.

II

Mr. Schilling's remedy is obviously modeled on the plan now in force in medical colleges, but Mr. Schilling is a little harder on the would-be teacher: on top of four years of graduate work he would erect a system of some four or five years of internship; that is, the

ambitious teachers must prove their worth by teaching freshman English for some four or five years while they are earning their Ph.D.'s. As Mr. Schilling says, "A highly trained class of teachers would thus emerge from the graduate school at about the age of thirty."

So far the parallel with the progress of the incipient doctor is plain enough. Both go through an arduous course of preparation; both arrive at the bottom rung of their profession at about thirty. But there are significant differences. In the first place, the young doctor has behind him the powerful American Medical Association standardizing the graduate schools, shrewdly working with the various states to regulate supply and demand and thus keep the art of medicine not only honorable but profitable. The young doctor can look to an immediate competence and forward to years of prosperity. On the other hand, the young teacher faces the trials and vagaries of a graduate system which is often not geared to his needs. Demands may tighten or loosen according to prejudice or need. When he is graduated, he faces eight or nine years of badly paid apprenticeship as an instructor. Mr. Schilling is very frank on this point. "Most young people now entering the academic profession should accept as inevitable a period of eight or ten years as instructors." The young doctor finds himself welcomed as a colleague by older doctors who need his help. The young teacher faces a fully entrenched hierarchy of his superiors who feel that he is a potential rival for their honors and prerogatives. Both systems are alike in that they seek to regulate the supply to the demand. The medical profession has proved its success; but Mr. Schilling's plan if it were successful would defeat itself.

III

At present, the colleges can set up almost fantastic requirements that the teacher must meet before he is allowed to teach the simplest course in English composition. There is an oversupply of teachers and a steady but very small demand for new recruits. If Mr. Schilling's plan should succeed beyond his expectations, if the supply of teachers could be cut by his rigorous system far below the demand, what would happen? In the first place, there would be

eager competition for new recruits; older professors would see that unless recruits were found they themselves would be forced back to take the neglected freshman courses. Following the usual economic law, proffered salaries would go up, and the instruction of freshman courses would no longer be comparatively inexpensive; moreover, the young teacher now could demand extra prerogatives and greater consideration. The college administration would be alarmed at the growing expense, and the older members of the instructional staff would begin to worry about their seniority rights. For a view of the next step we have only to see what is happening to the high schools in wartime. School boards have been reluctant to raise real wages. Teachers, faced with the rising costs of living and the extra duties that have been piled on teachers during the depression, have simply gone over in great numbers to defense work. Others not yet settled in routine have been taken away by the draft. The school boards have not responded to the challenge by trying to meet the competition in wages; they have not tried to lessen the teaching load. They have issued wartime certificates; retired teachers have been brought back into the ranks; normal schools have lowered their standards; people without training or experience have been given temporary jobs *at the usual wages*. What has happened to the high schools would happen in the colleges if Mr. Schilling's scheme were successful. Administrators would suddenly discover that the Ph.D. was no longer a necessary requirement; they would argue readily that any college graduate should be able to teach an elementary course. The elder professors, the heads of departments, uneasily feeling that their security was threatened, would agree—and the wage scale and Mr. Schilling's system would be reduced to chaos. Mr. Schilling's remedy would not cure for precisely the reason that he gives in its favor: That it would not seriously disturb the present organization of Departments of English.

In heaven's name, why not throw the full force of all professional societies against a type of organization which is unjust, inefficient, and founded on a demonstrably false assumption? That assumption is, of course, that it requires years of experience and study to teach an advanced course in literature or linguistics, and that any man who has been through graduate school can teach freshman

English. If it is true that the older professor has acquired a technique of teaching and learned more about human nature, then it is he who should be set to teach the bewildered and rebellious young men and women who are yearly forced into our freshman English courses. It is he who should handle a subject which is going to seem dull and unimportant to his students. The young man fresh from graduate school with the laws of linguistics still fresh in his mind, with his oral in literature just behind, could bring to the students in the elective courses a new enthusiasm and a new delight; his inexperience in teaching would be no handicap; and he could learn the technique easily and painlessly.

IV

I shall here be pragmatic with Mr. Schilling and say that I know that such a plan of reversing duties could have no hope of success—and I'll be honest enough to say that I do not believe that the teacher of the advanced course is displaying any superior talent at teaching. It is, after all, the older professor who has been pilloried by the generations of college students in their academic jokes about the twenty-year-old lectures and the perennial story popularly supposed to occur at the same time each year. But there are two ways in which the reorganization of departments could be effected: one already in cautious experiment; the other in partial operation through economic necessity. Mr. Schilling has alluded to them both, but dismissed them. And yet, it seems to me, both plans could be achieved. Mr. Schilling suggests that certain things be done either to the teacher or for him; he does not admit that as a professional man he could do something for himself.

The elementary course suffers from two things: (1) it is regarded with a certain contempt. Older men kept at the task too long feel embittered; young men regard the teaching of freshman English as a hard apprentice chore which they will in due time leave behind them; (2) administrations hire young men to teach the freshman course because they are cheap; they fire the young men after three or four years when they begin to get expensive—and, incidentally, when they are just getting into the swing of first-rate teaching. The process is exactly analogous to that of the

factory employer who fires his employees when they begin to perfect their skill sufficiently to demand high wages.

There is no logical reason for holding the course in contempt, and the economy which insists on an annual turnover of labor is in the long run a false one. The freshman course, well taught, requires more from a man in intelligence, stamina, and general alertness than any other course in the department. The young man thrown a syllabus and assigned 125 freshmen learns only after a painful apprenticeship how to teach well—it is at this point that he is usually dismissed. There is no reason for that dismissal; there is no reason why teaching the elementary course should not be a life's work provided he were satisfactorily rewarded and his position made an honorable one. The teacher like the doctor must deal year in and year out with certain fundamental facts; the professional prominence of both should depend on how they deal with the facts, not what variety of facts they choose to deal with. Keeping a permanent staff of teachers to teaching nothing but elementary courses would alarm most administrators who had any regard for the budget, but it should not. It is not efficient to hire unskilled workers to do a skilled man's work or to turn over to apprentices an entire section of the important work of education. I offer tentatively the suggestion that the problem of freshman English exists because it has been neglected and neither efficiently taught nor administered. Good men and experienced men could eliminate much of the drudgery, cunningly pry into causes, and remove the nightmarish air of desperation that comes every year when once again teachers discover that the incoming student knows nothing about his mother tongue. The hypothetical administrator who kept a permanent staff might find that his budget would not only not increase; it might diminish. Finally, this plan would not be too difficult to put into practice; it would require only understanding and unity on the part of the teachers and the full pressure of speaking through their professional associations.

V

The other plan is already in operation in the smaller colleges already hit by the draft and the loss in student enrolment: it is

simply the breakdown of the old horizontal stratification within a department, a stratification usually without meaning or purpose in a small college, where the older professors gradually slough their teaching loads as their pay increases, where the younger men are kept firmly at the grindstone. Older professors have seen the younger members go off to war and have been forced to take over some of the freshman work themselves: the freshman work of the departed instructor is distributed throughout the department. If this plan were permanently adopted, the academic health of the college would be improved; young men could enter boldly into the councils of the elders; they would no longer be held, as they are now, in a kind of isolation ward till the contagion of youth and newness had worn away. And this plan should be an administrator's dream: he could certainly expect greater efficiency; he would probably see no increase in his budget. Those who opposed this plan would doubtless be the older professors. And here again the professional associations should act as intermediators.

Perhaps my whole difference with Mr. Schilling comes down to this: teaching is a profession almost entirely under the control of forces outside the profession. Mr. Schilling wishes these forces to continue to operate on the teacher. I believe that if the profession is to keep or even attain the dignity which is its due, it must begin to exercise control by its own members.

"UNITED, WE STAND"

By BLANCHE H. DOW

Northwest Missouri State Teachers College

"What's past is prologue" and what is happening now is prophecy. Today's accomplishment shapes tomorrow's hope and thereby its probable achievement. To the casual thinker, and the majority of us are diverted and determined in our thinking by case histories rather than by causal relationships, the catastrophic calendar of 1914 to 1918 came to be regarded as a rude and shocking arousal from the tranquil ways of living which had held for less than a half, more than a quarter, of a century. But withal it was assumed to be a temporary break, a passing crisis, from which a needed lesson had been learned. There were, of course, the twentieth century Voltaires who voiced their warning that all was not for the best in the best of worlds, but their admonitions breathed a discord into our wishful thinking, and we soothed our momentarily troubled minds with casuistry.

That apathy is gone. The war makes universal interruption of the lethargic calm in which we accepted generally the assumptions that our direction was straightforward and clear and our progress normal and satisfying. We are impelled, whether we like it or not, to take sudden inventory of our resources, to construct new plans and programs for their utilization, to make serious provision for their conservation and their survival.

II

The importance which in America the general mind attaches to education is nothing short of amazing. Without adequate understanding of what goes on within the walls of school or college or university except in the advertised activities, which demonstrate to a large degree the yielding of the educational program to popular caprice, without concern for values which are demonstrably durable

and sound, without consistent effort to measure or to evaluate the product in terms of its expectation, the public is yet willing to be taxed, individuals are moved to make large private gifts, the citizenry is willing to commit its children and its young men and women to long years of school, while it clings with naïve tenacity to the expectation that one day the institution called education is going to effect such a metamorphosis of mind and thought and character that human society will be remade. The layman conjures by education as much as ever the medieval Christian conjured by Mother Church.

Whatever charges may be brought against our educational processes, and they are legion, whatever the sins and whatever the virtues of the American institution, they relate themselves inevitably to the profession of teaching. Directly or indirectly they derive from the weaknesses and failings or the strength which are common to the men and women of our calling. The accusation is, of course, often hurled at us that we do not constitute a profession, that we do not have a "calling," but that is to malign the purposes which actuate our members in the choice and in the conduct of their work, however far we fall short of desirable professional attitude and practice. Perhaps what we lack is an oath. We do not swear, and by that omission, who knows, perhaps we enter more carelessly than our brother doctors and clergymen and lawyers into our vocation, thenceforward to become so absorbed by the demands and interests of our immediate orbit that we too rarely lift our eyes to the larger circle. Externally our group is not unidentified. The undertaker of "Guy Mannering" with his "visage of professional length and most grievous solemnity" would be descriptively acceptable to most of our friends and our students. But whether the professional visage be long or short, grievously solemn or vacuously cheerful, the questions which concern us here are those which indicate the inner workings of the collective professional mind. What can be said of our unity, of our loyalty, of our mutual concern, of the hopes we cherish for the group, the accomplishments we covet for the profession, of our individual and unanimous growth? The profession's progress of the last two decades is no mean thing, but, if that accomplishment is to be safeguarded and maintained, the profession must reaffirm its will, its members must rally with renewed

devotion to the preservation of the principles on which that progress has been founded.

III

Concern for the general welfare moved our founding fathers to one of the noblest efforts in government which the world has seen. Their aspiration for the future marks all modern history. Their concept of the general good is the moving force behind the gigantic American effort in education. It is fundamental to our function as teachers, and, as such, it must increasingly concern us as a profession. In the face of its consideration conflicting interests must find in compromise a common ground. Petty conflicts must yield to the larger significance of principle. Professional devotion to one's field of scholarly research and communication is greatly to be praised. That, in a world of material powers and pressures, one should carry his lance in behalf of abstract science is a heartening thing. But that teachers should be unaware of the relation of all disciplines impairs the cohesion essential to a profession and denies to each member that fine sense of solidarity which a great profession should provide. Professors are individualists. Let them continue to be so within the cloistered walls of their instruction, but, in such a day as this, no more constructive thing could be effected in the cause of higher education than that we who are members of the academic profession should put aside our prejudiced allegiance, forget the egos long indulged, and unite our effort in the common cause of those who pledge their honest devotion through education to the defense of the future. "When the world is at its worst, then education must be at its best." A new unanimity, a renewed declaration of faith, a new reciprocity in the acknowledgment and utilization of our resources would give to our profession new courage and new power in the fulfillment of the stupendous obligation which confronts it.

IV

The American Association of University Professors was conceived and brought into being by far-sighted leaders who were motivated by concern for the welfare of the profession as a whole.

Our leaders have not wavered in their purpose. Their sagacity has been constant. They have run the gamut of critical attack from accusations of radicalism to charges of inertia and ineptitude, but through the years they have held with courage and with calm to the major principles of the organization, clearly defined as they have been from the beginning. The major premise of their thinking has been unmistakable. No field of study and investigation can survive, the total of human knowledge cannot be extended without the requisite of intellectual freedom. The demonstrated condition that intellectual freedom cannot exist without the assurance of economic safety established the inseparability of the principles of academic freedom and tenure, and the work of Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure came into being.

The work of Committee A deals of necessity with individual cases in which it is alleged that the now recognized principles of academic freedom and tenure have been violated, and individual cases catch and hold the public's attention, in and out of the profession. So the part is often construed to be the whole. But every report of that committee, every pronouncement of its chairman and of its members reiterates the principle behind the case in question, reveals anew the unremitting effort of the Association in behalf of the general good, its concern that through the amelioration of conditions within the profession a richer and more significant experience may be made possible for young men and young women in college and university. Vital as the work of Committee A is to the Association and to the profession at large, it is to fail to comprehend the significance of the Association if membership in it is regarded as a kind of subtle insurance against professional unemployment. I once heard a member contend that the amorphous or dormant condition of a chapter was often indicative of its healthy condition, and the instance was cited of a group which sprang suddenly into a program of energetic action when the established tenure of one of its members was in jeopardy. Such argument is based on the assumptions that the American Association of University Professors is concerned only with the question of tenure and that in time of stress a chapter can justly and effectively constitute a kind of pressure group. Neither assumption is valid, nor can the symptoms of encephalitis be regarded as a mark of health.

A chapter which comes to life and initiates an active program only when it is concerned with the tenure problem of one or some of its members has failed, of course, to comprehend the nature and purposes of the Association and demonstrates the continuing absence within the group of that motivation which makes the welfare of the whole of the profession the subject of its first concern.

V

The welfare of the whole of the profession and of the whole of the Association is intimately related to the welfare of the chapters, to their vitality, to their action. It is particularly dependent on the extent to which chapters are educated in the nature, the purposes, the history, and the work of the Association. New converts are the joy and the despair of any movement, and newly awakened chapters often evoke a similar response of mingled emotions. In consequence, they may at times suffer such pains as those which ensue from the well-meaning, but often misdirected, energies of youth. They err, not through intention, but through lack of knowledge. A chapter may, through some circuitous process of its own experience which has not included a study of the Association's history and policies, suddenly become aware of the basic quality of the principle that freedom and tenure are inseparable and long to voice this newly experienced conviction. It may frame a resolution, it may frame several resolutions. Such actions may be ill-advised and unnecessary, but they are wholesome and should be welcomed. They indicate that the chapter has at least a desire to be a functioning part of the whole Association, an interest in the education of itself.

The ways in which a chapter may become educated are many. The first essential is that it shall desire to be educated, and the presence or absence of such an attitude in the collective make-up of a chapter is more contingent upon the aggressive leadership of its officers than upon any other factor. Chapter officers have many obligations. Their rôle is varied, their functions numerous and sundry. They must deal in plan and policy and program. They must conduct meetings. They must keep records. Promptness and accuracy and epistolary conscience are indispensable to their

success. They must interpret the Association to those outside its membership, but if there were a definite way of measuring the vitality of a chapter, of evaluating it in terms of its contribution to the profession, that vitality and that contribution would be found to be commensurate with the power and the determination of its officers to effect within the local group an intelligent and active unit in the Association's program for the welfare of the profession. Such a determination finds its *modus operandi*. Whether a chapter shall devote some or all of its meetings to the discussion of problems, plans, and policies which enter into the program of the Association as a whole through its national organization is a question which the local group must decide. Specific programs for chapters cannot be prescribed by anyone except the chapters themselves. One chapter builds its program along lines of professional consideration suggested by the local situation. Another takes significant articles in the *Bulletin* as its point of departure. A third concerns itself with larger issues germane to the general welfare, but, from first to last, if those who are engaged in the building of chapter programs are alert to the implications of their opportunity, they will see to it that the chapter program is related to the total one of the Association.

The profession of teaching faces today a crucial test of the stability and the permanence of the standards it has laboriously built. Its deep concern is that of quality in education. Its pledge to the future is in behalf of the young men and young women who will look to the profession for instruction, leadership, and inspiration. The Association is a working organism devoted to these aims of the profession and, like every living organism, its total vitality is conditioned by the active health of its member parts. The resources within the chapters have never been fully tapped. Their potential accomplishment is uncalculated. United in intelligent action we cannot only maintain the standards already achieved, but can move with assurance toward a new and higher level of professional understanding and loyalty.

THE SOCIOLOGY OF SOCIOLOGISTS

or

What's Sauce for the Goose Is Sauce for the Gander

By ROLAND L. WARREN

Alfred University

It is well known that sociologists have gone to the far corners of the earth to study social processes. The Australian primitives, the Samoan natives, the Fiji Islanders, indeed, even the innocent inhabitants of Muncie, Indiana, have been unable to escape their searching penetration. In fact, to the layman at least, it would seem as though the sociologists had studied every group worth studying—but their own! Whether this is because they have had a natural reluctance to focus the implements of investigation on themselves, or whether perhaps they do not believe there is anything worth investigating in the subject, they have kept conspicuously free of their own particular group.

Such thoughts as these are dangerous. They become almost an obsession. The present writer, for instance, has been waiting patiently for some great scholar to turn his efforts to this task. He has been waiting for some years with the stifled question: "Who is going to bell the cat?" Alas, that question has not been answered, and so he turns, as meekly as possible, to the question himself.

II

Sometimes one is given to think that more sociology is to be learned by watching the sociologists than by listening to them. And so this bit of advice is given to all who would learn something from national sociological conventions: When you go, don't bother taking notes on speeches; take notes on actions. For you will find as interesting an array of sociological processes going on as you will find in darkest Africa. In this respect, at least, sociologists

cannot consider themselves part of Alfred Weber's *sozialfreischwebende Intelligenz*.

Let us, for example, watch Homer S. Wissensdrang as he rides on the train conference-bound. Ahead of him a few seats sits a distinguished-looking gentleman, who somehow looks familiar. Why, of course, it is Professor Hoch Geachtet, that famous European scholar who read such an important paper at last year's conference, one which was replete with sociological implications and destined to change the course of sociological investigation for years to come. No one had understood it, so everyone was certain that it had inner, concealed meanings of the most epoch-making dimensions.

Keep your eye on Wissensdrang as he gets up and goes over and sits down with the expert: "So interested in your paper of last year . . . keen insight . . . new methodology. . . . I'm giving one myself this year . . . sociology of . . . wanted to make a real contribution to that special field."

Did you notice that? He wants to make a real contribution to that special field? Shades of Mark Antony! He wants to make a real impression on Geachtet and the other influential men at the conference.

He realizes that; but uppermost in his mind is the more acceptable, more praiseworthy factor. Here we have our two ways of reasoning, the ideological as opposed to the empirical. As we observe at the conference we shall find many more examples of a moralistic reason being expressed, an equally influential reason remaining unvoiced because of—But why? Because we have among sociologists as well as among Fiji Islanders certain ideas which may be expressed, and others which simply are not mentioned. It is not the thing to do if you want to keep eyebrows from rising. For sociological societies also have their *mores*. Indeed, one of the country's leading sociologists pointed out at the 1940 convention that they, along with other scientists, may be said to form a Church, with its "College of Cardinals" and "a doctrine akin to 'the indelibility of the priestly character.'"

For instance, many sociologists comment privately on the serious problem of refugee competition for jobs, but few dare to publish on the question. When one did recently, the editor of one

of the leading journals rejected the article, admitting that it was good but pointing out the danger of breaking such a strong taboo.

Perhaps the greatest example among strong mores is the emotionally-grounded practice of never admitting that one's thinking is "subjective." One may with impunity and even with applause brand the thinking of his fellow sociologist as subjective, but rare is the black sheep who would dare admit the same of his own thinking. Others may insist that his thinking is subjective, but while insisting they would be shocked indeed if he should agree. That would violate a custom as emotionally potent among sociologists as any Australian primitive tribe has ever had to offer.

III

Even in the most democratic social orders men are differentiated according to social status. This is true among the natives of New Guinea and among American sociologists as well. Take Wissensdrang, for example. He has status B. That means he is probably an assistant professor, has published a few articles in the journals, has a number of acquaintances in the society. Class A is comprised of the pace-makers: specialists in certain fields, contributors of books and theories of great importance, officers of the society, full professors with followings in graduate schools.

Below Wissensdrang in the priestly hierarchy is the status C. This is made up of assistants and instructors, most of whom have done little publishing, are unknown, have few acquaintances outside the professors with whom they studied.

These three groups differ, but they will all manifest at the conference the presence of Thomas' four wishes: security, new experience, recognition, response. Generalities are dangerous, but it is almost safe to say that the great majority are looking for jobs, want to make contacts, want to learn something, want to be admired for their intellectual acumen, and, above all, they want to be heard!

The *American Sociologist*, describing the 1940 American Sociological Society Conference, observed that the young instructors, seeking jobs, "delivered the usual number of compliments to eager and trustful ears." If you think this comment derogatory, con-

sider Mortimer J. Adler's remarks about Class A men at a 1940 Conference:

Since professors come to conferences of this sort with the intention of speaking their minds but not of changing them, with a willingness to listen but not to learn, with the kind of tolerance which delights in a variety of opinions and abominates the unanimity of agreement . . .

Such talk is heresy and is likely to lead to schism. Adler came close to violating another sacred taboo.

Don't let this static classification of status belie the picture, however. In effect, these three classes are as busy as a swarm of bees, and there is much circulation among the groups. Watch Wissensdrang as he comes out of one of the smaller meetings with a B colleague. A class C acquaintance hails him with enthusiasm and pumps his hand. Wissensdrang introduces him perfunctorily to his colleague, and rapidly finds a way of getting rid of him. Wissensdrang and his class B colleague are out for larger fry.

Over yonder is a class A man, surrounded by a group of class B's and C's. They are discussing the meeting, each one outdoing the other in trying to make an impression on Brother A. The latter soon excuses himself and leaves, perhaps to meet other high priests in a class A room for a drink. With his departure, the tremendous enthusiasm for the discussion soon fades, as does the group. Wissensdrang, running true to B type, wants to duck the others and spend some time making unmolested impressions on a Brother A. If this is impossible, he will go out to lunch with his colleague B, who may be a perfectly swell fellow except that when an A comes along, Wissensdrang doesn't want competition.

The whole complex of relationships is reminiscent of the "peck-right" of Schjelderup-Ebbe, and is governed by the same regularities under which a rich London woman who wants to "break into" society will pay hundreds of pounds to be put on the same charity committee with Lady This and the Honourable That.

Essentially the same phenomenon is apparent in the editing of symposia by many authors. Frequently, a class A man, or one who considers himself class A, will want to be assured that the other co-authors are also of class A caliber before he will agree to

collaborate. On the other hand, many a class B man will pull all wires available in order to have his name appear on a table of contents which will bring him reflected glory.

Florian Znaniecki, in a recent book on "The Social Rôle of the Man of Knowledge," gives four component parts of a "social rôle." This social rôle is just the thing which sociologists, even more than South Sea Islanders, are concerned with. The elements are a *social circle*, *self*, *social status*, and *social functions*. The last two are the functions which an individual is expected to perform in order to maintain his status. Among sociologists, such functions are research, publication, having a following of students, serving on national and conference committees, etc. The methods employed to fulfill these functions would be the subject for an enticing bit of research. The *American Sociologist* observed that at the 1940 Conference "there was also the usual amount of politics—perhaps a little more than usual. As yet none of the candidates has hired a press agent (so far as we know) but there was a case or two where the candidate took along his political heelers who worked on the lobbies."

IV

In the case of class A men, an additional function is important—that of helping one's graduate students to gain a high social status. The class A man is generally under constant pressure to help his followers get started.

This is accomplished in part by letters of recommendation; but the myriad other methods for achieving this end are particularly interesting. A class A man is invited to collaborate as one of the co-authors of a symposium. Perhaps he feels that the other co-authors are not sufficiently well known, perhaps he hasn't time, or perhaps he simply is not interested. Does he write back declining? Yes, he does, but he never stops there. Almost invariably he has a "brilliant young man," a "thorough scholar," to recommend for the chapter. Or he gets these young hopefuls to record the proceedings of section meetings. Anything goes, so long as he can maintain his following and give his students publicity.

The question of publishing involves certain practices which are often maintained, seldom admitted. Again, such admission would violate a sacred taboo. For instance, a class A man, contemplating publishing a book in a particular field, will be inclined to criticize rather harshly the books which are published on the subject while he is writing. This serves to indicate the need for a "good" book—his own. Or a class A man whose book has been criticized will find some reason, any reason other than the real one, for declining to cooperate with the critic in the latter's future projects.

More cooperative tendencies often show themselves. For instance, an author, knowing that his book will be reviewed by certain of the outstanding scholars in the field, will heap praises on them in his book, so that they will feel pleasantly disposed towards it. Or an author, knowing that contacts are important for future positions, will edit a symposium instead of writing the book himself, so that, among advantages of wider sales and prestige-value of co-author's names, he will have made pleasant contacts with influential men in colleges all over the country.

V

Finally, sociologists, like the natives of Polynesia, are not immune to rituals. And that reminds the present writer that he has not as yet gone through the hallowing ritual which is always expected in such a paper as this. So the following will serve to avoid his violating a taboo, and illustrate a generally accepted ritual among scholars.

The need for a *scholarly analysis* of the sociology of sociologists has been overlooked by most modern students of the subject. A few, like Max Weber, Znaniecki, and Lindeman, have *touched upon the subject*, but the field still *lacks systematic research*. The present article is *merely an attempt to delineate the problem*. Further research is necessary. However, *if this paper has served to point out the significance of this vital field of investigation, the author's efforts will not have been in vain*.

This important ritual performed, the paper can now be safely concluded. Perhaps it will cause a storm of indignation among the more serious scholars. To them, a bit of Browning:

You of the virtue (we issue join)
How strive you? *De te, fabula!*

A WORD TO THE WIVES

By A FACULTY WIFE

If you are reading this communication it is probably because your husband has given it to you to read or because you have come upon this page by chance as you glanced through this issue of the *Bulletin* which your husband left on the library table. Of course, it may be that you know how interesting the articles in the *Bulletin* are and that you read them regularly. If that is the case, you do not need to read further. You are already convinced.

With the knowledge of increased taxes for next year, you and your husband are probably now giving careful consideration to the reorganization of the family budget. You are weighing the relative merits of each item to insure full value for every dollar spent. Nothing will be included that does not contribute to the well-being of the family. When you come to the item—Annual Membership Dues to the American Association of University Professors, \$4.00—I hope that you will consider carefully what that \$4.00 buys for your husband and for you, too, since your interests and his are inseparable. Maybe you don't really know because he may never have told you just what he gains from his membership in the Association. Of course you have a general idea, but you may think that only if your husband were in trouble, academically speaking, would he derive benefit from his membership.

If you will take the time to read some of the articles in the copy of the *Bulletin* which you are holding and perhaps glance over some of the back numbers which are, or should be, in your husband's study you will discover one of the immediate and tangible benefits which comes as a result of this \$4.00 expenditure. The *Bulletin* of the Association is published five times a year and sent to each member. In it your husband can read what scholars in fields other than his own are thinking and doing and keep abreast of significant

trends in the academic world. Through it the necessarily narrowing effect of scholarly specialization is counteracted.

Membership in the Association has another value, less tangible but of deeper significance. Your husband is a member of a profession and whatever strengthens that profession helps him. Professors and their wives should consider this fact as vital to them as do the members of other learned professions, notably law and medicine. The American Association of University Professors is the professional organization for college and university teachers. It speaks for them, and its voice is persuasive in relation to the size of its membership.

Perhaps your husband is so fortunately situated that it will never be necessary for him to call upon the Association to speak directly in his behalf, but everything the Association does benefits him indirectly. The Association's insistence that tenure be recognized and respected, that freedom of speech and inquiry is vital to the profession, that professional standards must be maintained, makes every member of the teaching profession a beneficiary in proportion to its success. Perhaps you haven't realized that the favorable academic conditions which your husband enjoys have in large part been due to the fact that he and many of his colleagues, at present over 16,000, are members of the American Association of University Professors. If you and I and any large number of wives of members of the Association say: "Here is where we can reduce expenses a little, Jim, don't continue to pay this \$4.00," the voice which speaks for us all will be less strong and without the full persuasive power which a large membership gives it. In time you and your "Jim" may suffer in consequence.

Now, when war of necessity is seriously affecting our colleges and universities, is the very time when membership in the Association is especially important. The cost is relatively small, approximately the price of a magazine subscription. Insist that your husband continue to ally himself with his colleagues. Assure him that you regard the \$4.00 annual membership dues to the American Association of University Professors as a sound family investment and an item in the budget never to be deleted.

Censured Administrations

Investigations by the American Association of University Professors of the administrations of the several institutions listed below show that they are not observing the generally recognized principles of academic freedom and tenure, endorsed by this Association, the Association of American Colleges, the Association of American Law Schools, and the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

Placing the name of an institution on this list does not mean that censure is visited by this Association either upon the whole of that institution or upon the faculty, but specifically upon its present administration. This procedure does not affect the eligibility of non-members for membership in the Association, nor does it affect the individual rights of our members at the institution in question, nor do members of the Association who accept positions on the faculty of an institution whose administration is thus censured forfeit their membership. This list is published for the sole purpose of informing our members, the profession at large, and the public that unsatisfactory conditions of academic freedom and tenure have been found to prevail at these institutions. Names are placed on or removed from this censured list only by vote of the Association's Annual Meeting.

The censured administrations together with the dates of these actions by the Annual Meeting are listed below. Reports of investigations were published as indicated by the *Bulletin* citations:

Adelphi College, Garden City, New York (October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 494-517)	December, 1941
Brenau College, Gainesville, Georgia	December, 1933
John B. Stetson University, De Land, Florida (October, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 377-399)	December, 1939
University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri (October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 478-493)	December, 1941
Montana State University, Missoula, Montana (<i>Bulletin</i> , April, 1938, pp. 321-348; December, 1939, pp. 578-584; February, 1940, pp. 73-91; December, 1940, pp. 602-606)	December, 1939
West Chester State Teachers College, West Chester, Pennsylvania (February, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 44-72)	December, 1939
University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania (March, 1935 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 224-266)	December, 1935
St. Louis University, St. Louis, Missouri (December, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 514-535)	December, 1939
University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee (June, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 310-319)	December, 1939
Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Washington (October, 1940 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 471-475)	December, 1940
Western Washington College of Education (Board of Trustees), Bellingham, Washington (February, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 48-60)	December, 1941

ACADEMIC FREEDOM AND TENURE

STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE

Murfreesboro, Tennessee

In the academic year 1939-1940 Philip H. Mankin was serving his fourteenth year as a member of the faculty of the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro, Tennessee.¹ Mr. Mankin, a member of the Department of Languages, was a teacher of English.² He had been graduated with high honors from the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro in 1924, at which time the institution, offering a three-year curriculum, was known as the Middle State Normal School. He had received the degrees of B.S. (1925) and M.A. (1927) from George Peabody College for Teachers. Of the four English teachers on the faculty of the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro only one had served longer in the Department than Mr. Mankin. All the evidence indicates that Mr. Mankin was a good teacher and a good citizen. He was popular alike with students and townspeople.

On March 4, 1940 Quintin M. Smith, President of the College, had his secretary deliver to Mr. Mankin the following letter:

A survey of the course offerings and teaching load in the language department indicates that it is possible and advisable to reduce the teaching staff of that department by one.

This is to notify you that I shall not include your name on the faculty list nor budget for 1940-41 submitted to the State Board of Education at the May meeting and that I will recommend that your services as a member of the faculty be discontinued after July 17, 1940.

On March 12, 1940 Mr. Mankin wrote President Smith requesting a statement of the charges, if any, against him. President

¹ Mr. Mankin is now an instructor in English at Vanderbilt University where he is nearing the completion of his work for the Ph.D. degree.

² Members of the faculty at the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro, Tennessee are not given the traditional designations of professor, associate professor, assistant professor, and instructor.

Smith replied on March 13. The full text of his response is: "This is to acknowledge receipt of your letter of March 12."

In the March 14 issue of the *Daily News-Journal*, a Murfreesboro newspaper, there appeared a statement that President Smith "announced today" that he was recommending the dismissal of Mr. Mankin. Following this statement there are these sentences in the newspaper account:

Declaring that he had received orders from Governor Cooper to "economize," Smith said that the measure was "purely for economy." He said he had no criticism of Mankin's ability.

II

Mr. Mankin continued his efforts to ascertain why he was being dismissed. To this end, on April 22, 1940, he wrote to the State Board of Education requesting permission "to appear before you when my case is discussed to defend myself." On May 10, 1940, with the permission of the Board, Mr. Mankin appeared before it in "Executive Session" at Nashville. The minutes of this session state:

Prof. Mankin was admitted into the "Executive Session" of the State Board of Education to make such statements as he might wish to make at this time in response to a letter he had received from the President of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro, notifying him, he would be recommended for dismissal from the college faculty.

To understand the outcome of this meeting it is necessary to know that in the previous February Mr. B. O. Duggan, Chairman of the State Board of Education, had been authorized by the Board to appoint committees to investigate conditions at the institutions under the Board's control. He had appointed these committees accordingly, among them the Middle Tennessee Committee whose duties included the investigation of conditions at the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro. The upshot of the discussion between Mr. Mankin and the State Board of Education at the Executive Session on May 10 was an agreement that the case of Mr. Mankin's dismissal should be fully presented to the

Middle Tennessee Committee of the Board when that committee met at Murfreesboro.

It was suggested to Mr. Mankin at the May 10 meeting that the Middle Tennessee Committee would consider the whole matter and would give him an opportunity to present evidence and to call witnesses in his behalf. He was told also that, if he wished, he could make a statement then and there to the whole Board in "Executive Session." To this he replied, "I do not care to make a speech. I am here in self-defense." At that point Dr. Doak S. Campbell, then Dean of Graduate Studies in George Peabody College for Teachers and a member of both the State Board of Education and the Board's Middle Tennessee Committee,¹ remarked: "Why not let him speak while he is here?" Other Board members favored waiting until they had learned the findings of the Middle Tennessee Committee. According to the minutes of the "Executive Session" the next remarks were as follows:

Dr. Campbell: "My only point is, that this Board must adopt budgets today for next year. We must adopt or reject budgets as presented by the presidents. I do not see how we could void certain items."

Maj. Shofner [also a member both of the Board and of the Middle Tennessee Committee]: "I do not think we could, except in this one instance."

Dr. Campbell: "I will not press the matter. I will withdraw the request if desirable, but we have a recommendation in writing from the president that this faculty member be not retained and stating his reasons. Admittedly Mr. Mankin wishes to state reasons why that should not be done. Unless there are new angles, it should go into the record. If we act upon the record as it stands, I am willing for it to be so."

Maj. Shofner: "Your attitude is this. We must make this investigation relative to the president of the institution. If, by chance, we find that is justified, and if I knew that today, then I personally would not vote to sustain the president in this investigation. Therefore, I think the investigation is necessary first."

Dr. Campbell: "I am willing to let it go that way. The committee can go ahead and do this work."

¹ Since 1941 Dr. Campbell has been President of Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee, Florida.

When these remarks are studied closely in the light of all the proceedings at the "Executive Session," it is evident that Dr. Campbell favored the immediate adoption of President Smith's recommendation that Mr. Mankin be dismissed without giving to Mr. Mankin anything more than an opportunity to place upon the record his statement of reasons why he should not be dismissed. Major Shofner, on the other hand, wished to have Mr. Mankin retained as a member of the faculty of the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro and the consideration of his status delayed until after the charges preferred against President Smith had been considered and action taken upon them. Apparently Dr. Campbell was not interested in the observance of the requirement of good academic practice that a decision to dismiss a teacher should be made only in the light of evidence based upon specific charges which has been presented at a *bona fide* hearing. Dr. Campbell's training and experience as a member of the academic profession placed him in the position of one to whom the other members of the State Board of Education could be expected to look for guidance in making decisions in Mr. Mankin's case. It is disappointing, therefore, that he should not have stood unequivocally for observance of principles of good academic practice.

During the discussion at the May 10 meeting, however, Mr. Mankin asked whether any charges had been made against him and Chairman Duggan replied: "No. None other than the letter written to you by Mr. Smith." Shortly thereafter at the same meeting Chairman Duggan stated again: "No charges except the copy of the letter sent you by Mr. Smith, have been filed." Another member of the Board remarked: "If any charges are made, you will have abundant opportunity for refutation in each instance."

III

The Middle Tennessee Committee met in Murfreesboro on June 4 and 5, 1940. At this meeting formal charges were presented against President Q. M. Smith. These charges, according to the Murfreesboro *Daily News-Journal* of June 5, 1940, were signed by

"approximately 75 citizens, including members of the college faculty." The newspaper described the charges as follows:

1. That Smith's moral record and moral reputation is such as to destroy his usefulness as president of a college, particularly a co-educational college; and leads to degeneration of morals among the student body of the school.

2. That he is dictatorial and autocratic and has little regard for the human feelings of others and is guilty of unfair discrimination among the faculty members.

An account in the Nashville *Tennessean* of June 4, 1940 contains these paragraphs:

Philip Mankin, English teacher at the college for more than thirteen years whose dismissal is believed locally to have precipitated the move to oust Smith, appeared before the committee for forty minutes.

Duggan, however, pointed out that no charges had been made against Mankin and that the hearings were to determine whether or not charges that Smith was "a ruthless, political minded administrator" were true.

Mr. Mankin's dismissal seems to have come before the Middle Tennessee Committee as an incidental matter. Following its hearings in June the Committee voted to sustain the administration of the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro, and so recommended to the State Board of Education at a meeting of the Board on June 17, 1940. The Board concurred in the Committee's recommendation. In a letter dated April 14, 1941 to Professor William M. Hepburn, at that time Associate Secretary of the American Association of University Professors, Chairman Duggan explained the action of the Middle Tennessee Committee of the Board and the subsequent action of the Board itself on June 17, 1940 as follows:

At the May, 1940, meeting of the State Board of Education, Prof. Philip Mankin appeared before the Board and agreed to postpone a further hearing until the Committee appointed by the Board to investigate the administration of the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro should meet in Murfreesboro for this purpose. This Committee having power to act held a two-day

session in Murfreesboro at which time it thoroughly investigated the administration of the college, saw and heard many citizens both in interest of and against the administration of the college and also gave a full hearing to Prof. Mankin and a number of citizens who appeared before the Committee in his behalf.

The Committee sustained the administration of the college and so recommended to the State Board of Education in called session on June 17, 1940. The Board concurred in the Committee's recommendation.

At the May, 1940, meeting the State Board of Education adopted the budget of the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro, for the ensuing year. The Board's action in sustaining the administration of the teachers college at Murfreesboro and in the adoption of the budget automatically approved the recommendation therein for the release of Prof. Mankin. Notice of his dismissal was sent through the duly authorized agent of the State Board of Education and recorded in the August, 1940, minutes of the State Board of Education.

From Chairman Duggan's explanation it is evident that thus to sustain the administration of the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro meant, in the minds of the members of the board, that among the acts of the administration so sustained was the dismissal of Mr. Mankin.

Dr. Doak S. Campbell subsequently stated to a representative of the American Association of University Professors that it was unfortunate that Mr. Mankin had been used by a political group interested in obtaining the dismissal of President Smith. It may be that, after his dismissal, Mr. Mankin did hope that President Smith would be removed from office, thus opening the way to his own reinstatement, and that his actions might have been interpreted as designed to make reality of his hope. Such a reaction on Mr. Mankin's part would have been entirely normal in one who felt himself to have been unjustly treated. Whether or not this was Mr. Mankin's hope, whether or not his actions immediately after his dismissal should be so interpreted, his purpose was to obtain a statement of the charges against himself and an opportunity to be heard in his own defense. This he did through proper channels and in proper ways. His requests for a statement of charges and a hearing could have been and should have been granted.

IV

Having been unable to obtain any statement of charges and a *bona fide* hearing upon such charges, Mr. Mankin presented his case to the American Association of University Professors and requested an investigation. On August 9, 1940 the General Secretary of the Association wrote to President Smith requesting a statement of the reasons for Mr. Mankin's dismissal. On August 27, 1940 President Smith replied as follows:

This replies to your letter of August 9 relative to the case of Mr. Philip H. Mankin.

You are advised that in dealing with the case Mr. Mankin was given more than sixty days' notice as required by contract prior to the meeting of the State Board of Education which was scheduled to meet May 10, 1940. The recommendation was referred to a special committee of this Board at my request. This committee met in Murfreesboro and conducted a two day investigation and included in its deliberations the case of Mr. Mankin. This committee reported to the State Board of Education on June 14 [*sic*], making a unanimous report that my recommendation be sustained. This was unanimously adopted by the State Board of Education.

I assure you that there was no action taken in connection with the dismissal of Mr. Mankin which involved any infraction of the code of your organization relative to academic freedom and that all procedures were in accordance with the employment contract.

For further information I refer you to Honorable B. O. Duggan, Chairman of State Board of Education, War Memorial Building, Nashville, Tennessee.

On September 9 the General Secretary wrote to President Smith, again asking the reasons for Mr. Mankin's dismissal, inquiring whether at the meeting of the Middle Tennessee Committee Mr. Mankin had had an opportunity to answer questions concerning the reasons for his dismissal, and pointing out that, although the facts known to the American Association of University Professors did not permit a determination of whether or not a question of academic freedom was involved, a probable violation of good academic practice respecting tenure was presented. President Smith did not answer this letter until the General Secretary sent him a request by telegram on October 7. The

President's answer, dated October 8, was a telegram of which the full text is: "My letter August 27 is my reply." Further endeavors by the General Secretary to obtain from President Smith and Chairman Duggan an adequate statement of the reasons for Mr. Mankin's dismissal were continued until the end of November, 1940. These endeavors were unsuccessful.

In March, 1941 Professor William M. Hepburn visited Murfreesboro and Nashville in an attempt to obtain further information about the case. He talked with a number of persons concerned with the case. He sought to obtain from President Smith the reasons for Mr. Mankin's dismissal and asked President Smith specifically whether economy was the reason. President Smith replied that his letters did not say so, but agreed that the newspapers had attributed to him a statement that economy was the reason. President Smith put to Professor Hepburn certain "hypothetical cases" which, however, he explicitly and repeatedly denied referred to the case of Mr. Mankin. It is Mr. Mankin's belief that these "hypothetical cases" did refer to him. In a second conference later the same day President Smith, though still framing his remarks in the same general terms used in his hypothetical cases intimated to Professor Hepburn that Mr. Mankin's views, particularly on religious questions, were not in accord with those prevailing in the community, and that this was the real basis for his dismissal.

In June, 1941 Professors M. C. D'Argonne of Xavier University (New Orleans) and A. J. Stanley of Louisiana State University visited Murfreesboro and Nashville as representatives of the American Association of University Professors to inquire further into the facts of the dismissal of Mr. Mankin. They spent three days in Murfreesboro and Nashville interviewing persons known to have information concerning the Mankin case. They did not interview Chairman Duggan, who was absent from his office in Nashville as he had been in March when Professor Hepburn visited there.

At this time President Smith made more definite statements with respect to the reasons for the termination of Mr. Mankin's services. He told Professors D'Argonne and Stanley that some years previously he had advised Mr. Mankin to take a leave of

absence in order to obtain a Ph.D. degree. He said further that there was no single reason for the dismissal but an accumulation of many things over a long period of time. The reasons he gave were the following: introduction of religious questions, including the doctrine of a physical hell, into classroom discussions; carelessness about personal appearance; interference in a disciplinary matter involving the dismissal of a young woman from the college for attending a dance without permission; failure to turn in grades promptly; failure to submit syllabi of courses to the president; voting against the desirability of obtaining an R.O.T.C. unit for the college; and failure to take part in extra-curricular activities or to maintain social life of any importance.

The inevitable conclusion from the foregoing testimony is that the reasons for the termination of the tenure of Mr. Mankin were never definitely formulated or communicated to him in advance of his dismissal, and that he was never given a *bona fide* hearing. It was not enough that President Smith, the accuser, was aware of grounds of objection, or even that Mr. Mankin, the accused, may have shared this knowledge. No man can ever be sure how plain his unexpressed thought is to another. Certainly the Middle Tennessee Committee could not hear and decide the case of Mr. Mankin adequately or justly without clearly framed charges.

IV

The issues in the case of the dismissal of Mr. Mankin are of two kinds: those relating to the procedure followed in reaching the decision to dismiss him, and those relating to the merits of the case irrespective of the procedure.

So far as the procedure is concerned, the facts are unmistakable. In bringing about the termination of the services of Mr. Mankin, the responsible authorities of the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro did not observe the familiar principles of academic freedom and tenure generally observed in accredited institutions in that they did not provide Mr. Mankin with a clear statement of charges against him nor give him an opportunity to be heard in

defense of himself against such charges before the bodies that passed judgment on his case.¹

Since the State Board of Education is a governmental body, not only the familiar principles of academic tenure but also the general principles of proper administrative adjudication apply to this case. The Supreme Court of the United States in *Morgan v. United States*, 304 U. S. 1, 18 (1938), said of administrative hearings:

The right to a hearing embraces not only the right to present evidence but also a reasonable opportunity to know the claims of the opposing party and to meet them. The right to submit argument implies that opportunity; otherwise the right may be but a barren one.

In 1941 the Committee on Administrative Procedure, appointed at the request of President Roosevelt by the Attorney General of the United States, reported in part as follows (77th Congress, First Session, Senate Document No. 8, p. 63):

A second prerequisite to fair formal proceedings is that when formal action is begun, the parties should be fully apprised of the subject-matter and issues involved. Notice, in short, must be given; and it must fairly indicate what the respondent is to meet.

V

Mr. Mankin's case was not examined as an independent matter and on its merits by the Middle Tennessee Committee of the State Board of Education or by the Board itself. As indicated above, the Middle Tennessee Committee seems to have been concerned with Mr. Mankin's dismissal only as an incidental part of a general inquiry into the affairs of the State Teachers College at

¹ It is interesting to note that the 1940 Statement of Principles concerning academic freedom and tenure formulated and agreed upon by the representatives of the Association of American Colleges and of the American Association of University Professors, which was endorsed by these two Associations at their annual meetings held on January 9, 1941, and December 28, 1941, respectively, was incorporated as part of Standard XII of the minimum standards for accrediting institutions by the American Association of Teachers Colleges at its Annual Meeting on February 22, 1941. The State Teachers College at Murfreesboro is a member of the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

Murfreesboro and of President Smith's administration of the institution. The Board as a whole accepted its Committee's recommendations. Consideration of the merits of the case, therefore, continues to be not only proper but necessary.

Nothing elicited by the prolonged and patient inquiry of the American Association of University Professors indicates adequate cause for the dismissal of Mr. Mankin. The following paragraphs summarize the results of this inquiry.

President Smith's initial letter of March 4, 1940 to Mr. Mankin obviously implied that the reason for his dismissal was economy. In a letter of November 29, 1940 to the General Secretary, Chairman Duggan said: "In the recommendations made by President Smith to the State Board of Education of May 10, 1940, he advised that the Department of Languages could dispense with one teacher and asked that Professor Mankin be released in the interest of economy." In a brief telephone conversation with the Associate Secretary of the Association in March, 1941 the Secretary of the State Board of Education mentioned economy as the reason for the dismissal and seemed surprised that any other possible reasons should be mentioned. During the first interview between President Smith and the Associate Secretary of the Association, however, President Smith denied having written to Mr. Mankin that economy was the reason for the dismissal. Although the idea of the necessity of saving money was given circulation at the time of the dismissal, for the reasons indicated later in this report it is evident that economy was not the real reason for President Smith's recommendation that Mr. Mankin be dismissed.

VI

The most significant of the "charges" against Mr. Mankin made by President Smith in his interview with Professors D'Arbonne and Stanley in June, 1941 is the first—that he introduced controversial religious topics into classroom discussion.

Both President Smith and Mr. Mankin have strong religious convictions. These convictions, however, differ widely, those of President Smith being of a kind usually classified as conservative, those of Mr. Mankin being of a kind usually classified as liberal. The pastor of the church of which Mr. Mankin is a member de-

scribes him as a scholar, a gentleman, and a "Christian liberal." President Smith and Mr. Mankin lived and worked in a community the majority of whose members probably hold religious convictions more akin to those of President Smith than to those of Mr. Mankin.

Some time before Mr. Mankin's dismissal President Smith asked him to come to the president's office. In the ensuing conference President Smith asked him many questions involving theological and doctrinal issues. President Smith asked such questions as whether Mr. Mankin believed in the Apostle's Creed, in the Virgin Birth, in the physical resurrection of Jesus, in immortality.

Following Mr. Mankin's dismissal, at the time when he was seeking a hearing before the State Board of Education, he had a conversation with Chairman Duggan. Mr. Duggan said he "had heard of" Mr. Mankin, and introduced into the conversation a discussion of Mr. Mankin's religious beliefs. Mr. Duggan showed knowledge of the conversation Mr. Mankin previously had had with President Smith upon this topic.

From these facts it is evident that Mr. Mankin's religious views loomed large in the decision to dismiss him. It is pertinent, therefore, to consider his alleged introduction of controversial religious questions into classroom discussion.

The evidence bearing upon Mr. Mankin's discussion of religious questions in class indicates passing and proper comment on these questions. A specific instance of comment which some people regarded as objectionable is that during a class lecture in Greek literature, and with reference to a passage in the text, Mr. Mankin said that he personally did not believe in a "burning hell." On another occasion, in a faculty meeting during a discussion of the purposes of various courses of study, Mr. Mankin said, "The Bible is a book that most people look up to, but few people look into." This statement, it seems, was repeated by students who were present at the faculty meeting. In an account of the faculty meeting printed later in the student newspaper, it was reported that Mr. Mankin had made a joke about the Bible. It is probable that Mr. Mankin made other statements of a nature similar to these two, and that, as in this latter case, the statements were re-

ported out of their context and without regard to the spirit in which they were uttered.

When religious subjects were relevant to topics under discussion in the classroom, Mr. Mankin believed that, rather than to avoid subjects of controversy, it was good teaching to permit their introduction because of the stimulation of the thought of students which would be the consequence of their careful and impartial discussion. A large number of Mr. Mankin's students have written to the Association to testify to the stimulus their thinking did receive as a result of discussions led by Mr. Mankin. At the same time the students declare emphatically that these discussions did not destroy their religious faith, but on the contrary had the effect of revivifying and of strengthening it. The evidence shows that Mr. Mankin accepted only those opportunities to discuss religious subjects that arose naturally, and did not seek to create such opportunities or to permit classroom discussions that were irrelevant, irreverent, partisan, or unsympathetic.

There is evidence that Mr. Mankin had been criticized by fundamentalists in the community because he had mentioned controversial religious questions in class. In this connection it should be remembered that the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro, Tennessee is a public institution where special limitations upon a teacher's freedom of thought and expression concerning religion are not properly included in its regulations. Special limitations of a particular creed on a teacher's freedom of expression are proper only in private institutions proprietary in character and established to further a particular creed or doctrine. They are not proper in other institutions of higher learning, particularly those which are supported and controlled by the public. Moreover, the use, whether open or furtive, of such limitations with respect to a teacher in a state school is a violation of the spirit, if not also the letter, of the guarantees of religious freedom in the Federal and State Constitutions. In these guarantees in the Constitution of the State of Tennessee, it is provided:

That all men have a natural and infeasible right to worship Almighty God according to the dictates of their own conscience. . . that no preference shall be given, by law, to any religious establishment or mode of worship.

That no political or religious test, other than an oath to support the Constitution of the United States and of this State, shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under this State.

VII

This section is concerned with the other "charges" made by President Smith.

There is no substantial evidence that Mr. Mankin's lack of a Ph.D. degree actuated his dismissal. While it had been suggested to Mr. Mankin by President Smith that he take a leave of absence to obtain a Ph.D. degree, there is no evidence that these suggestions in any way implied that Mr. Mankin's academic training was inadequate for the position which he then held. Mr. Mankin had not continued his graduate work because of financial reasons resulting from a low salary and heavy family responsibilities.

In an interview with President Smith in March, 1941 Professor Hepburn asked President Smith whether Mr. Mankin's lack of a Ph.D. degree was an element in the decision of the Board to dismiss him. President Smith said it was not. The Bulletin of the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro for June, 1940 lists 55 members of the faculty. Of these, only six hold the Ph.D. degree. President Smith and Mr. Mankin each received his highest degree, that of M.A., from George Peabody College for Teachers in 1927. In the light of these facts it is reasonable to conclude that Mr. Mankin's lack of a Ph.D. degree did not actuate the decision to dismiss him.

No evidence was found to disclose any undue carelessness by Mr. Mankin about his personal appearance. The investigators were told, however, that he might have appeared careless to President Smith when he would not have appeared careless to others, because President Smith desired extreme neatness of attire.

No evidence, except of a trivial nature, was found respecting the charge of interference with college disciplinary action. Concerning the charge that Mr. Mankin failed to turn in grades promptly, there is evidence that he was conscientious in his grading of final examination papers and did not wish to hurry this type of work. The only time that President Smith called for his grades before

they were ready, accusing him of being late with them, was on an occasion when Mr. Mankin had been ill and had fallen behind in his grading. Even then Mr. Mankin turned in his grades on the morning of the day when they were due, and before some of the other teachers turned in their grades. In the matter of syllabi he appears to have been no more remiss than other members of the faculty. Generally speaking, the administration seems not to have made it clear what was wanted in this respect and not to have brought home to the faculty the idea that syllabi were important.

Mr. Mankin's vote against the establishment of an R.O.T.C. unit at State Teachers College at Murfreesboro does not merit serious consideration in connection with his dismissal, except perhaps as indicating President Smith's views on free expression of opinion on the part of faculty members. Whether an R.O.T.C. unit should be established was a question that had been presented to the faculty, in the regular course of business, for discussion and a vote. That the R.O.T.C. unit was not established may suggest that Mr. Mankin's judgment was sound.

Comments with respect to deficiencies in Mr. Mankin's extra-curricular activities and to his lack of social life were unsubstantiated. Mr. Mankin worked hard at a low salary on which he supported his mother and educated a sister, but this did not keep him from giving his time freely to students or from being well known and liked in the community.

VIII

The facts of the foregoing statement speak for themselves.¹

¹ In accordance with the usual procedure of the Association, copies of a tentative report concerning the case of Mr. Mankin were mailed on November 18, 1942 to the following persons "for correction of possible factual errors:" Mr. B. O. Duggan, President Quintin M. Smith, Dr. Doak S. Campbell, and Mr. Philip H. Mankin. Mr. Duggan returned his copy of the tentative report with these words written on the cover page: "No comment. [signed] B. O. Duggan." On November 27 the General Secretary of the Association telegraphed President Smith as follows: "When may I expect your reply my November 18 letter? Wire reply Western Union collect." President Smith has acknowledged receipt neither of the copy of the tentative report nor of the telegram of November 27. Dr. Campbell's reply contained an exception to one statement in the tentative report. Mr. Mankin indicated several factual errors. The report as published is a revision of the tentative report in the light of further inquiry concerning the points questioned.

In the light of these facts Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure of the American Association of University Professors finds that the dismissal of Philip H. Mankin violated the principles of academic freedom and tenure generally observed in accredited institutions. It finds that his dismissal was accomplished without regard to the procedure which should govern action in such cases and that, irrespective of the procedure observed, the facts do not justify the dismissal. Committee A believes that Mr. Mankin is an able teacher and that his dismissal was detrimental to the welfare of the State Teachers College at Murfreesboro, Tennessee. The Committee expresses the hope that the State Board of Education will reconsider its action in this case.

Approved for publication by Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure.

E. C. KIRKLAND, *Chairman*

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FEDERAL INCOME TAX RETURNS IN 1943

The Federal Revenue Act of 1942 has vital economic effect upon practically everybody in the teaching profession. It greatly increases the income tax rates, introduces a new Victory Tax coupled with collection at the source, and reduces personal exemptions so low that even the recipients of the most meager teaching salaries are likely to find themselves in the class of taxable individuals. Unfortunately, this widened impact of Federal income taxation is accompanied by a legislative and administrative situation making it very difficult for laymen to find the exact terms of the law and understand what they mean.

Sources of Information

The standard official printed sources of information about income tax law, aside from the return blanks, are (1) the statutes themselves, (2) the descriptive and interpretative regulations issued by the Treasury with reference to the statutes, (3) the various Committee reports published in connection with the passage of Revenue Acts through Congress, and (4) published rulings and decisions by the Treasury (including, of course, the Bureau of Internal Revenue), the Board of Tax Appeals (now renamed The Tax Court of the United States), the Court of Claims, and the other Federal courts with respect to various particular problems and controversies.

The form of internal revenue legislation, particularly income tax laws, has changed very greatly since 1938. Up to and including the Revenue Act of that year, Congress had followed the practice of embodying almost the complete scheme of income taxation in each major Revenue Act. This meant frequent repetition of many provisions, but had the advantage of telling the whole current story in the act itself. There were, however, other and more important advantages in collating the entire body of internal revenue law and giving it manifestly stable form, which was accomplished in 1939 by enactment of the Internal Revenue Code

(usually referred to as I.R.C.). Nowadays, a revenue act, so far as it does not embody completely new tax devices, tends to be a thing of shreds and patches—repeals, amendments, substitutions, and additions quite blind to the uninitiate until read in conjunction with the preexisting Code provisions. This is true of much in the Revenue Act of 1942.

The drafting of interpretative regulations is an exceedingly difficult job because of the high standard of accuracy and the large amount of constructive imagination demanded. Hence, it moves slowly. The official published commentary on Federal income tax is still Treasury Regulations 103, originally issued in connection with legislation of 1939 and from time to time amended. Copies may sometimes be obtained from local Collectors of Internal Revenue, but the normal way to get them is by purchase from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., the price being \$1.00 each. While in many respects still reliable, these bound copies do not contain the amendments to date, and, of course, do not cover the numerous important changes caused by more recent Congressional enactments. If the Treasury succeeds in issuing completely revised regulations early enough for use by persons making income tax returns on March 15, 1943, it will have accomplished an extraordinary feat.

Next to Treasury regulations, Congressional Committee reports are perhaps the most valuable general source of official interpretations of internal revenue legislation. The Committee reports on the Revenue Bill of 1942 have been published in the Internal Revenue Bulletin, a periodical issued by the Bureau of Internal Revenue, the report of the House Committee on Ways and Means appearing in the number for October 26, 1942 (1942, no. 43, pp. 17-149), that of the Senate Committee on Finance in the number for November 2, 1942 (no. 44, pp. 18-214), and that of the Conference Committee in the number for November 9, 1942 (no. 44, pp. 32-64).

Judicial decisions, and administrative rulings and decisions, concerning the income tax are, of course, being constantly issued, but few of them prior to the middle of next March are likely to have direct reference to any provision of the Revenue Act of 1942.

The foregoing statement shows that it is quite difficult for a lay-

man, or even a lawyer, to get quick and complete answers on income tax from official sources. This has caused the publication of private tax services, the best being elaborate loose-leaf sets usually available in law offices, accountants' offices, banks, and business or law libraries. The same private sources can supply reprints of Treasury regulations as amended and of the revenue acts with explanatory text. For instance, the Commerce Clearing House, Inc., which has offices in the Empire State Building, New York City, at 214 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago, in the Munsey Building, Washington, and in other large cities, sells a reprint of the income and excess profits tax regulations for \$2.00 and has already issued a reprint of the Revenue Act of 1942, with explanation, for \$1.00 per copy.

In view of all the circumstances attending the problem of income tax returns in 1943, it seems wise to publish the present comment as early as possible.

General Effect of Revenue Act of 1942

The new Revenue Act has at long last accomplished one simple change which the Treasury has greatly desired and which taxpayers will find highly convenient. It is now unnecessary to make ordinary individual income tax returns under oath. Instead, the verification in each case will consist of a simple declaration that the return is made under the penalties of perjury.

In its more serious economic aspects, the Act is not so accommodating. As already stated, it further reduces personal exemptions. Exemptions are generally prescribed for individuals under this classification: (1) single persons or married persons not living with their spouses, and in either case not heads of families; (2) married couples living together; and (3) heads of families. A person in class (1) has a personal exemption of \$500; a married couple in class (2) has a total exemption of \$1200; and a person in class (3) has an exemption of \$1200. A person in class (1) or (3) must file a return if his gross income is \$500 or more. A married person within the limits of class (2) must file a separate return or participate in a joint return if he has any income and the aggregate gross income of the spouses is \$1200 or more. By an addition to I.R.C. sec. 22(b), the Revenue Act of 1942, sec. 117, in

substance retains personal exemptions at their former levels of \$750 and \$1500 for military and naval personnel if they are (1) below the grade of commissioned officers, and (2) in active service, this special alleviation to continue (3) until termination of the present war as proclaimed by the President.

The credit for dependents has been lowered to \$350 each, and if a taxpayer claims personal exemption as head of a family by reason of having one or more dependents, he may have credit only for the total number of dependents minus one. Thus a widower, maintaining a home for himself and his two dependent children under the age of 18, has a personal exemption of \$1200 as head of a family and only one \$350 credit.

The Act continues the optional arrangement for a greatly simplified return on the form which will presumably continue to be numbered 1040A. To be entitled to use this form, the taxpayer must be a citizen or resident alien; must be on the cash basis of accounting; must make return for a full calendar year; and must have gross income not in excess of \$3000 consisting wholly of salary, wages, compensation for personal services, dividends, interest, or annuities, or some combination of two or more of these forms of income. If husband and wife file separate returns, neither may use Form 1040A unless the other also uses this form. Additional special provisions as to use of this form by married persons, and certain other detailed conditions of its use, will undoubtedly be made clear in the form itself. Because of the extreme ease of filling out Form 1040A, persons who use it save time and trouble. Whether they will thus save or lose money can only be ascertained, however, by comparing tax liability computed on 1040A with tax liability computed on the form designated as 1040. Comments upon the more intricate Form 1040, which may be described as the general purpose return form, are deferred to the end of this statement.

Under the Revenue Act of 1942, the rate of normal tax has been increased from 4% to 6%; surtax, now beginning with the first dollar of what can be described as taxable net income, starts with a rate of 13% on the initial \$2000, reaches 24% in the bracket between \$6000 and \$8000, reaches 32% in the bracket between \$10,000 and \$12,000, and finally attains 82% for all over \$200,000.

Moreover, the Revenue Act of 1942 imposes a new levy called the Victory Tax which in some respects seems like an additional normal tax, but in others is very different. This tax is next described.

Victory Tax

The Victory Tax is at the flat rate of 5% and applies only to income of individuals attributable to taxable years beginning after December 31, 1942. Hence, no taxpayer need make a Victory Tax return until 1944, and returns when made will be conveniently included in his ordinary income tax returns. The Victory Tax is not to apply with respect to any taxable year commencing after the date of cessation of hostilities in the present war.

Despite the postponement of returns until 1944, certain features of the new tax require attention in 1943. One of these features has to do with collection of the tax at the source, the other with credit allowable against the tax.

Speaking broadly, employers are required, beginning January 1, 1943, to withhold from wages a tax equal to 5% of the excess of each wage payment over the withholding deduction allowable. This deduction is at the rate of \$12 per week or \$624 per year for each employee, the latter sum being identical with the annual specific exemption under the Victory Tax. The term "wages" means in general all remuneration for services performed by an employee for his employer. Several exceptions are made in the definition, the most significant of which in the present connection provide that "wages" shall not include remuneration paid "for domestic service in a private home, local college club, or local chapter of a college fraternity or sorority" or "for casual labor not in the course of the employer's trade or business." Thus the householder is free from any duty to withhold, and at quarterly intervals remit with covering tax returns to the government, the tax on wages of domestic servants, choremen, and the like. Sums withheld from wages in the manner described by the first sentence of this paragraph will, of course, be credited as advance payments of victory tax on account of the employees affected. Excess withholdings, if any, will apply against ordinary income tax liability.

For immediate purposes it is not necessary to complicate this exposition with explanation of the differences between "victory tax net income," on which the Victory Tax is based, and the surtax net income and net income subject to normal tax, on which ordinary individual income tax is based. It is, however, advisable to give some description of the credit against Victory Tax because of the control over this credit which taxpayers may exercise during 1943.

The Act allows as a maximum postwar credit for each taxable year beginning after December 31, 1942, (1) to a single person or a married person not living with the other spouse, 25% of the Victory Tax or \$500, whichever is the lesser; (2) to the head of a family, to a married person living with a spouse who files no return, or to a married couple filing a joint return, 40% of the Victory Tax or \$1000, whichever is the lesser; (3) to a married person living with the other spouse "where separate returns [*sic*] are filed by each spouse," 40% of the Victory Tax or \$500, whichever is the lesser; and (4) for each dependent, excluding one in the case of a head of a family, an additional credit of 2% of the Victory Tax or \$100, whichever is the lesser. This pattern of credits follows that previously described for personal exemptions and credits in connection with ordinary income tax. The credits, except so far as they have been anticipated under the provisions next explained, shall, as soon as practicable after cessation of hostilities in the present war, be applied against any income tax due from the taxpayer, the excess being refunded to the taxpayer.

Beginning in 1943 the taxpayer may take currently the benefit of his credit against Victory Tax under I.R.C. sec. 453, added to the Code by Revenue Act of 1942, sec. 172, and reading as follows:

(a) ALLOWANCE OF CREDIT.—There shall be allowed as a credit against the victory tax for each taxable year:

(1) The amount paid by the taxpayer during the taxable year as premiums on life insurance, in force on September 1, 1942, upon his own life, or upon the life of his spouse, or upon the life of any dependent of the taxpayer specified in section 25(b) (2) (A); and the amount paid during the taxable year as premiums on life insurance which is a renewal or conversion of such life insurance in force on September 1, 1942, to the extent that such premiums do

not exceed the premiums payable on such life insurance in force on September 1, 1942.

(2) The amount by which the smallest amount of indebtedness of the taxpayer outstanding at any time during the period beginning September 1, 1942, and ending with the close of the preceding taxable year, exceeds the amount of indebtedness of the taxpayer outstanding at the close of the taxable year.

(3) The amount by which the amount of obligations of the United States owned by the taxpayer on the last day of the taxable year exceeds the greater of (A) the amount of such obligations owned by the taxpayer on December 31, 1942, or (B) the highest amount of such obligations owned by the taxpayer on the last day of any preceding taxable year ending after December 31, 1942. As used in this paragraph (i) the term "owned by the taxpayer" shall include the amount of the obligations owned solely by the taxpayer and one-half of the amount of the obligations owned jointly by the taxpayer with one other person, but shall not include such obligations acquired by the taxpayer by gift, or inheritance, or otherwise than by purchase; (ii) the term "obligations of the United States" means such obligations of the United States as the Secretary may by regulations prescribe, and as are purchased in such manner and under such terms and conditions as he may specify; and (iii) the term "amount of obligations of the United States" means the amount paid for such obligations.

(b) LIMITATION ON CREDIT.—The amount of such credit for the taxable year shall not exceed the amount of the postwar credit or refund allowed by section 454 for such taxable year.

The concluding cross-reference is to the section describing the postwar credit, the main features of which are summarized in the preceding paragraph. Since the postwar credit *carries no interest*, many taxpayers may decide that its anticipation by current expenditures and claims under sec. 453 is their wisest course of action. As already stated, the expenditures giving a basis for these anticipatory claims may be commenced in 1943, but the claims themselves will be parts of returns filed in 1944 and later years.

Form 1040

The Treasury courteously permitted the author to inspect a copy of the new Form 1040 while this article was in galley proof. The details of the form must be withheld until the release date, but this inspection has made possible the use of the slightly differ-

ent item numbering prescribed for returns under the Revenue Act of 1942. The instructions accompanying the form, which are now in a four-page folder, should be carefully studied.

Item 1. *Salaries and other compensation for personal services.*

An important question for many teachers in active service has been whether they must include, as part of gross income, contributions to the cost of deferred retirement annuities made by the institutions which these teachers serve. Retirement plans of this sort can be handled in at least two ways. Either (1) an educational institution may set up a trust to which periodical payments are made for the ultimate benefit of teachers after retirement, or (2) the institution may contribute to the cost of retirement annuity policies issued by the T.I.A.A. or an insurance company. The Revenue Act of 1942 covers both these situations. The first, now believed to be comparatively rare in American colleges and universities, is dealt with by an intricate amendment of I.R.C. sec. 165, contained in sec. 162 of the Act, along with a complementary and equally intricate amendment of I.R.C. sec. 23(p). These provisions are obviously intended for industrial concerns, but educational institutions are not explicitly excluded. In certain contingencies the trust beneficiaries are required to include in their gross income not only their own current contributions (typically deductions from gross salary) but also the current contributions from the employers. Whether or not the latter inclusion is required in a particular case depends upon the set-up and management of the trust, and involves details likely to be known only to the financial officers in charge. It will, therefore, be necessary for beneficiaries under such trust arrangements to direct inquiries to these officers. The handling of the second and more common situation is much clearer and simpler. The statutory provision consists of a new subparagraph (B) added to I.R.C. sec. 22(b) (2), the effect of which in the present connection is best described by the following sentence from the report of the Senate Committee on Finance: "If an annuity contract is purchased for an employee by a religious, educational, or charitable organization, which is exempt under section 101(6), the employee will not be required to include in his income the amount paid by his employer for such annuity contract until he actually

receives or there is [*sic*] made available to him the amounts required to be paid under the annuity contract, regardless of whether the annuity plan meets the requirements of section 165 . . . and whether the employee's rights are nonforfeitable." The employee *is* required to include in his gross income the amount currently contributed by deduction from his gross salary. As to the taxability of retirement annuity payments, see *infra* under the heading *Annuities*.

Certain expenses are deductible from gross salaries and the like as a step in computation of the earned income credit (as to which see comment *infra* under the heading *Computation of tax*). These expenses can be placed in the scheme of income taxation by a brief summary of deductible and nondeductible expenditures. (1) Ordinary and necessary business expenses are deductible; these include expenses properly applicable against salaries, etc. (2) Ordinary and necessary current expenses are deductible, although not business expenses, if they are for production or collection of income, or for management, conservation, or maintenance of property held for production of income. This deduction is permitted under the Revenue Act of 1942, sec. 121, amending I.R.C. sec. 23(a). Examples of such expenses are the compensation paid to collecting and managing agents and trustees. This kind of expense, because of its lack of relation to business or profession, is usually not deductible from the taxpayer's gross *earned* income, and probably will be covered explicitly or in general terms by one of the items under the general heading of *Deductions* (see *infra*). (3) Personal, living, or family expenses are not deductible. (4) Expenditures which may be described as capital investments are not directly or immediately deductible. They may be recovered only by allowances for depreciation or exhaustion spread over the useful life of the assets involved, which life will normally exceed a single year. In claiming depreciation connected with his professional earnings, the salaried man encounters some mechanical difficulty because the return form is not aptly framed. But he can solve this problem by attaching an itemized statement patterned along the lines of Schedule J on page 4 of Form 1040 as furnished by the Treasury in 1942.

Regulations 103, sec. 19.23(a)-5, briefly cover professional

expenses. Of those enumerated as deductible, the ones most likely to affect teachers are the cost of supplies used in the practice of their profession, dues to professional societies and subscriptions to professional journals, hire of office assistants, and current expenditures for books and professional equipment of which the useful life is short (typically one year or less). A recent ruling (I.T. 3448, 1941—1 C.B. 206¹) adds to the deductible list "expenses of traveling and meals and lodgings incurred in attending teachers' conventions in this country," so far as there is no reimbursement for such expenses and provided records are kept to substantiate the deductions claimed. See also Regulations 103, sec. 19.23(a)-2, on ordinary business travelling expenses. I.T. 3448 ends thus:

The cost of technical books required by and purchased by teachers specifically for use in connection with their professional work is a capital expenditure which may be extinguished through annual deductions for depreciation.

This obviously refers to books with long-term usability.

Questions are frequently asked about the deductibility of expenses of research and publication in connection with Ph.D. theses, scholarly work carried out during sabbatical leave, and other like professorial activities. On these points, G.C.M. 11654, XII—1 C.B. 250, 251, states that expenditures in connection with the publication of the results of investigation may or may not be deductible, depending upon whether they are ordinary and necessary current expenses or constitute capital expenditures. There is a tendency in the Bureau of Internal Revenue to classify the costs of obtaining an education or of qualifying for a degree as either personal expenses, not deductible at all, or capital expenditures. How such a capital expenditure could be recovered

¹ "C.B." means the semi-annual cumulative edition of the Internal Revenue Bulletin; "1941—1" means the issue of this cumulative bulletin for the first half of the year 1941; "I.T." means a ruling by the income tax unit. Some later abbreviated references may also be explained here. "G.C.M." stands for General Counsel's Memorandum. "XII—1" in connection with the abbreviation C.B. means the cumulative issue of the Bulletin for the first half of 1933; the convenient use of the numeral showing the year in question, instead of a Roman numeral, was not begun until 1937.

is left obscure. It would seem very difficult to work out any scheme of periodical allowances for getting back educational costs. It has been ruled that when a teacher receives sabbatical leave with continuing compensation on condition that he must travel for educational purposes during the period of leave, his expenses incurred on such travel are deductible. I.T. 3380, 1940—1 C.B. 29. Compare G.C.M. 10915, XI—2 C.B. 245, stating that railroad fare expended by a faculty member in traveling from his place of regular employment to his place of temporary employment at a summer school is deductible as a business expense.

One aspect of the deductibility of expenses has become particularly important to professors because of present emergency conditions. Many teachers, notably those engaged in engineering, science, economics, government, and law, have been called upon to give advice or render services at places distant from their homes and regular places of work. They have had to spend money for travel and subsistence and need to know whether these expenditures are deductible. Cases and rulings do not cover all situations, but some illustrations may be helpful. If a teacher whose regular work and home are in New York City is summoned to Washington for a few days as consultant to a government department, it is clear that he may deduct from any compensation received for this service the cost of travel, food, and lodging. In case he receives an expense allowance as well as compensation for services, the approved method of treating the transaction in a Federal income tax return is to include both compensation and expense allowance in gross income and deduct therefrom actual expenses of the kind indicated above. If a teacher whose regular work is in Illinois goes to Massachusetts for an extended term of service, intending at the end of this service to resume work in Illinois, his traveling expenses are deductible. If this teacher during his absence continues to maintain for his family a residence in Illinois, it is probable that his living expenses in Massachusetts are deductible. If, on the contrary, he closes or rents his Illinois home, moves his family to Massachusetts, and there sets up temporary domestic headquarters, neither the expense of moving the family nor the living expenses of himself and family in Massachusetts would be deductible. In all cases of doubt taxpayers

claiming such expense deductions should include in their returns clear and adequately detailed statements of fact.

Now and again a teacher in the course of his scholarly work undertakes a task of research or authorship which cannot be completed for several years, with payment of all or a large part of the compensation held up until completion. Under these circumstances he may find it possible and profitable to follow the alternative offered by I.R.C. sec. 107, as amended in 1942. The amendment reads:

(a) Section 107 is amended to read as follows:

SEC. 107. COMPENSATION FOR SERVICES RENDERED FOR A PERIOD OF THIRTY-SIX MONTHS OR MORE.

(a) **PERSONAL SERVICES.**—If at least 80 per centum of the total compensation for personal services covering a period of thirty-six calendar months or more (from the beginning to the completion of such services) is received or accrued in one taxable year by an individual or a partnership, the tax attributable to any part thereof which is included in the gross income of any individual shall not be greater than the aggregate of the taxes attributable to such part had it been included in the gross income of such individual ratably over that part of the period which precedes the date of such receipt or accrual.

(b) **PATENT, COPYRIGHT, ETC.**—For the purposes of this subsection, the term "artistic work or invention," in the case of an individual, means a literary, musical, or artistic composition of such individual or a patent or copyright covering an invention of or a literary, musical, or artistic composition of such individual, the work on which by such individual covered a period of thirty-six calendar months or more from the beginning to the completion of such composition or invention. If, in the taxable year, the gross income of any individual from a particular artistic work or invention by him is not less than 80 per centum of the gross income in respect of such artistic work or invention in the taxable year plus the gross income therefrom in previous taxable years and the twelve months immediately succeeding the close of the taxable year, the tax attributable to the part of such gross income of the taxable year which is not taxable as a gain from the sale or exchange of a capital asset held for more than 6 months shall not be greater than the aggregate of the taxes attributable to such part had it been received ratably over that part of the period pre-

ceding the close of the taxable year but not more than thirty-six calendar months.

(c) **FRACTIONAL PARTS OF A MONTH.**—For the purposes of this section a fractional part of a month shall be disregarded unless it amounts to more than half a month in which case it shall be considered as a month.

(b) The amendment made by subsection (a) shall be applicable to taxable years beginning after December 31, 1940, but with respect to a taxable year beginning after December 31, 1940, and not beginning after December 31, 1941, the period specified in such subsection shall be sixty months in lieu of thirty-six months, and the percentage specified in such subsection shall be 75 per centum in lieu of 80 per centum.

Item 2. *Dividends.* No special comment seems necessary.

Items 3 and 4. *Interest.* No special comment seems necessary.

Item 5. *Interest on Government obligations.* This item is supported by a schedule in the return form, and the arrangement of the schedule is a helpful guide to the taxpayer. For the last year or two, teachers as well as other citizens have been purchasing United States bonds issued to raise money for war purposes. Several classes of these securities are non-interest-bearing obligations issued at a discount. With respect to such obligations, governmental or private, I.R.C. sec. 42(b) provides as follows:

(b) **NON-INTEREST-BEARING OBLIGATIONS ISSUED AT DISCOUNT.**—If, in the case of a taxpayer owning any non-interest-bearing obligation issued at a discount and redeemable for fixed amounts increasing at stated intervals, the increase in the redemption price of such obligation occurring in the taxable year does not (under the method of accounting used in computing his net income) constitute income to him in such year, such taxpayer may, at his election made in his return for any taxable year beginning after December 31, 1940, treat such increase as income received in such taxable year. If any such election is made with respect to any such obligation, it shall apply also to all such obligations owned by the taxpayer at the beginning of the first taxable year to which it applies and to all such obligations thereafter acquired by him and shall be binding for all subsequent taxable years, unless upon application by the taxpayer the Commissioner permits him, subject to such conditions as the Commissioner deems necessary,

to change to a different method. In the case of any such obligations owned by the taxpayer at the beginning of the first taxable year to which his election applies, the increase in the redemption price of such obligations occurring between the date of acquisition and the first day of such taxable year shall also be treated as income received in such taxable year.

These discounted government obligations bear tables showing the gradual increase in redemption price, and from the tables it is easy to obtain the necessary figures for using the option under sec. 42 (b), if the taxpayer decides to pay his tax by annual installment rather than in a lump sum for the year of redemption.

Item 6. *Rents and royalties.* So-called "royalties" on books written or edited by teachers may be earned income, and subject to the earned income credit. This type of "royalty" should be returned under Item 1 *supra*, rather than Item 6. In 1927 the Treasury issued G.C.M. 236, VI—2 C.B. 27, which, while not altogether easy to interpret, seems to mean that if an author agrees in advance as an employee or independent contractor to write an article or book for a publisher, the latter to copyright and own the product and to pay compensation to the author, the payments are earned income; but if the author first writes the article or book and then sells, leases, or rents "his intellectual product" (presumably this means the manuscript) to the publisher, his return therefrom is not earned income. Some doubt is felt as to the validity of this distinction, but the matter has not been much further clarified. The case of *Oppenheim* (E. Phillips, no less!), 31 B.T.A. 563 (1934),² is interesting in this connection.

Item 7. *Annuities.* The taxation of annuities is important to retired professors, and the Revenue Act of 1942 contains new provisions on the point. These amend I.R.C. sec. 22(b) (2) to read as follows:

(b) EXCLUSIONS FROM GROSS INCOME.—The following items shall not be included in gross income and shall be exempt from taxation under this chapter: . . .

(2) (A) ANNUITIES, ETC.—Amounts received (other than

² "B.T.A." means the series of reports issued by the Federal Board of Tax Appeals, now renamed The Tax Court of the United States.

amounts paid by reason of the death of the insured and interest payments on such amounts and other than amounts received as annuities) under a life insurance or endowment contract, but if such amounts (when added to amounts received before the taxable year under such contract) exceed the aggregate premiums or consideration paid (whether or not paid during the taxable year) then the excess shall be included in gross income. Amounts received as an annuity under an annuity or endowment contract shall be included in gross income; except that there shall be excluded from gross income the excess of the amount received in the taxable year over an amount equal to 3 per centum of the aggregate premiums or consideration paid for such annuity (whether or not paid during such year), until the aggregate amount excluded from gross income under this chapter or prior income tax laws in respect of such annuity equals the aggregate premiums or consideration paid for such annuity. In the case of a transfer for a valuable consideration, by assignment or otherwise, of a life insurance, endowment, or annuity contract, or any interest therein, only the actual value of such consideration and the amount of the premiums and other sums subsequently paid by the transferee shall be exempt from taxation under paragraph (1) or this paragraph;

(B) **EMPLOYEES' ANNUITIES.**—If an annuity contract is purchased by an employer for an employee under a plan with respect to which the employer's contribution is deductible under section 23(p)(1)(B), or if an annuity contract is purchased for an employee by an employer exempt under section 101(6), the employee shall include in his income the amounts received under such contract for the year received except that if the employee paid any of the consideration for the annuity, the annuity shall be included in his income as provided in subparagraph (A) of this paragraph, the consideration for such annuity being considered the amount contributed by the employee. In all other cases, if the employee's rights under the contract are nonforfeitable except for failure to pay future premiums, the amount contributed by the employer for such annuity contract on [*sic*] or after such rights become nonforfeitable shall be included in the income of the employee in the year in which the amount is contributed, which amount together with any amounts contributed by the employee shall constitute the consideration paid for the annuity contract in determining the amount of the annuity required to be included in the income of the employee under subparagraph (A) of this paragraph; . . .

The foregoing passages give the full text of a provision already made the subject of comment under Item 1 *supra*.

Item 8. *Gains and losses from sale or exchange of capital assets and other property.* The Revenue Act of 1942, sec. 150, in many respects changes the provisions for dealing with capital gains and losses under the income tax. By and large, the plan of procedure is to tax short-term gains as ordinary income, but to give long-term gains the benefit of less onerous rates; to permit losses on the sale or exchange of capital assets to be offset against ordinary gross income to a very limited extent only; and to permit the taxpayer a long carry-over into the future for the sake of offsetting capital losses in bad years against capital gains in good years. The statutory description of this process is almost inconceivably intricate, and no attempt will be made to give a full explanation. Fortunately, it is possible to assist taxpayers in this matter by carefully prepared schedules in the return form, and such schedules are furnished in Form 1040. It should be remembered, both here and in connection with the item for losses *infra* under *Deductions*, that for an individual a loss is not deductible unless (A) not compensated by insurance or otherwise and (B) suffered (1) in trade or business, or (2) in a transaction entered into for profit, or (3) from fire, storm, shipwreck, or other like casualty, or from theft. I.R.C. sec. 23(e). For instance, loss on sale of a residence which the taxpayer has occupied as his dwelling house up to the time of sale is not deductible, although a gain on such a sale is taxable. It should also be noted that deductions may not be taken for losses from sales or exchanges of property directly or indirectly between members of a family. I.R.C. sec. 24(b) (1) (A) and (2) (D).

Item 9. *Net profit (or loss) from business or profession.* This is not deemed of particular interest to professors as such, their profession being a salaried one.

Item 10. *Income (or loss) from partnerships; fiduciary income; and other income.* If the taxpayer receives income from a fiduciary, he should in any matter of doubt apply to the fiduciary for the necessary information and advice.

Items 12-17. *Deductions.* Among the deduction items is one for taxes. Hitherto, there has been some doubt and confusion as to whether gasoline and other sales taxes were deductible by the purchaser or by the seller. This doubt is cleared

away in the Revenue Act of 1942, sec. 122, by the following amendment to I.R.C. sec. 23(c):

(3) **RETAIL SALES TAX.**—In the case of a tax imposed by any State, Territory, District, or possession of the United States, or any political subdivision thereof, upon persons engaged in selling tangible personal property at retail, which is measured by the gross sales price or the gross receipts from the sale or which is a stated sum per unit of such property sold, or upon persons engaged in furnishing services at retail, which is measured by the gross receipts for furnishing such services, if the amount of such tax is separately stated, then to the extent that the amount so stated is paid by the purchaser (otherwise than in connection with the purchaser's trade or business) to such person such amount shall be allowed as a deduction in computing the net income of such purchaser as if such amount constituted a tax imposed upon and paid by such purchaser.

The Revenue Act of 1942, sec. 124, has also thoroughly revised I.R.C. sec. 23(k) relating to the deduction for bad debts. The full text of the revision should be consulted by any taxpayer who wishes to make a deduction claim of this sort. Certain other matters relating to deductions have been discussed above under Item 1.

Items 20-33. *Computation of tax.* Most of these items require no special comment. The personal exemption of husband and wife who make separate returns on Form 1040 may be taken in full by either or divided between them in such proportion as they see fit. In this situation the taxpayers' object will be to produce the greatest saving. Since this exemption applies against surtax as well as against normal tax, it should as a rule be used by that spouse whose surtax net income runs into higher brackets. The earned income credit, in contrast, is applicable only against normal income. The Treasury in 1942 recommended repeal of the provision for this credit, one reason given being that the amount saved was small and that a great deal of trouble was caused by taxpayers' carelessness in making erroneous computations. Congress did not repeal the provision, but the episode gives warning about using reasonable care in this respect. The schedule for computation of earned income credit which has pre-

viously appeared in Form 1040 seems perfectly clear, and there is little excuse for mistake by a reasonably intelligent and careful taxpayer.

Married taxpayers must consider the relative desirability of joint and separate returns. In community property states, spouses will very often find separate returns more beneficial than joint returns, because in separate returns community income can be split, and the surtax thereon dropped into lower brackets. Aside from this particular aspect of the problem, it is of course self-evident that when husband and wife, making separate returns, would each show taxable income, a joint return by them will tend to push some of that income into higher brackets and thus increase the aggregate tax. But if either spouse has surplus allowable deductions, credits, etc., more than offsetting his or her gross income, a joint return may save tax because in it the aggregate income, deductions, and credits are computed as though husband and wife were one person.

Harvard Law School

J. M. MAGUIRE

CANCELLATION OF 1942 ANNUAL MEETING

To the Members of the Association:

The 1942 Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors, which was scheduled to be held in Cleveland, Ohio on December 28 and 29, was canceled. This action was taken by the national officers of the Association with the advice and the consent of the Council in compliance with the request from the Office of Defense Transportation that meetings of educational groups scheduled for the 1942 Christmas season be canceled.

Notices of the cancellation of the 1942 meeting were sent to all chapter officers on December 8 and to the members of the Association individually on December 9. Chapter officers were urged to bring the fact of the cancellation of the meeting to the attention of all the members of the Association at their respective institutions. It was suggested that "Each member should be notified directly by mail or telephone or in person," and, in addition, that notice of the cancellation be published in "the student newspaper or in some other local newspaper."

The cancellation of the Annual Meeting necessitates the transaction in some other way of necessary Association business, particularly the election of members of the Council and the voting on pending amendments to the Constitution and By-Laws. Although the Constitution and the By-Laws of the Association make no provision for the omission of an annual meeting and the conduct of business in case of such omission,¹ it is the consensus of the national officers and the Council that in the present emergency it is proper for the officers and the Council to conduct necessary Association business by mail. The principles of implied, inherent, and resultant powers, which are a part of American constitutional law, although obviously not entirely apposite, support this conclusion. The officers and councils of some of the educational organizations whose

¹ One of the pending amendments to the Constitution of the Association provides for such an emergency.

1942 meetings have been canceled are extending their terms of office until such time as another annual meeting can be held. It is the consensus of the officers and the Council of our Association that such a procedure is undesirable and not in keeping with the democratic philosophy implicit in the Association's Constitution and By-Laws.

The election of members of the Council and the voting on the several pending amendments to the Constitution and By-Laws which would have taken place at the Annual Meeting will, therefore, be conducted by mail. Ballots for this purpose will be sent to the Active Members of the Association directly to their *Bulletin* mailing addresses to be marked by them individually and returned to this office. Were it not for the fact that there are several amendments to the Constitution to be voted upon, the officers and Council probably would have called for a proportional vote as provided in one of the pending constitutional amendments. However, since the organic law of the Association itself is involved and since the use of the mail ballot in this instance is an exercise of power not specifically granted in the Constitution of the Association and which can be justified only because of the emergency which, in fact, makes the holding of a meeting impossible, it seemed desirable that the balloting be individual rather than proportional. The ballots, which will include the names of the nominees for the Council and the pending amendments to the Constitution and By-Laws, will be sent to the Active Members in January with the bills for dues.

The officers and Council regret that it was necessary to cancel our 1942 meeting. A timely program had been prepared. As indicated in the preliminary announcements of the meeting in the October *Bulletin* and in a Chapter Letter, the educational problems incident to the war were to receive special attention. Among the speakers who were to participate in the meeting were Dr. Charles E. Wickenden, President of the Case School of Applied Science, Dr. John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, and Dr. George F. Zook, President of the American Council on Education.

The importance of the business which was to have come before the Annual Meeting makes its cancellation unfortunate. Among the items on the agenda were the annual reports and recommendations of Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure and of Com-

mittee E on Organization and Conduct of Chapters by their respective chairmen, Professors E. C. Kirkland of Bowdoin College and F. J. Tschan of Pennsylvania State College, as well as the consideration of several proposed amendments to the Constitution and By-Laws of the Association. Some of these amendments are designed to facilitate the administration and the work of the Association during the war years.

We hope that every Active Member of the Association will participate in the voting on the pending amendments to the Constitution and By-Laws and in the election of Council members and that, prior to voting, careful consideration will be given to the reports of Committee O on Organization and Policy and of the Nominating Committee which appeared in the October, 1942 *Bulletin*. With reference to the nominees for the Council, we wish to call your attention particularly to the last paragraph of the report of the Nominating Committee:

In presenting this report the Committee desires to add for itself and on behalf of the Association as a whole this expression of gratitude to these nominees. They are not "candidates." These persons were chosen by unanimous agreement of the Committee, and their names appear here at the urging of the Committee for service which they may be able to render to the Association.

The list of Council nominees, together with the biographical data concerning each of them which appeared in the October *Bulletin*, is published again in this issue.

The regular winter meeting of the Council of the Association which was scheduled to be held in Cleveland, Ohio in connection with the Annual Meeting was also canceled. The information we now have indicates that it will be possible for the Council to meet later and to hold other meetings at intervals during the period of the war. The next meeting will be held at such time as the Office of Defense Transportation indicates that meetings may be held without burdening the transportation facilities reserved for the military forces or without otherwise impeding the war effort. The members of the Association are assured, therefore, that in so far as possible there will be regular meetings of the Council and that through the Council the membership will have continuous representation in the

determination of Association policies and in the transaction of Association business. Apropos of representation on the Council, we hope that the members of the Association will avail themselves of the opportunity to suggest to the Nominating Committee the names of Association members especially qualified to serve on the Council. Forms for this purpose are sent to the members each year early in January with the bills for annual dues.

The effectiveness of the Association depends in large part on the extent to which its nature, its purposes, and its work are understood. we wish to take this opportunity to call your attention to a specific, inexpensive, and effective way of increasing general understanding of the Association and its work, namely, the arrangement authorized by the Council five years ago whereby it is possible for chapters to have the *Bulletin* of the Association sent to college and university trustees and administrative officers at a special subscription rate of fifty cents a year. Experience indicates that a chapter *Bulletin* subscription for a trustee or a dean or a president is a wise investment in professional welfare. There is abundant evidence which indicates that trustees and administrative officers read the *Bulletin* and that their reading of it is contributing greatly to their understanding of the nature and purposes of our Association and of the professional concept of college and university teaching which the Association seeks to develop and strengthen. During the past year 703 chapter *Bulletin* subscriptions were authorized. If a chapter wishes to authorize *Bulletin* subscriptions for administrative officers and trustees for 1943 this may be done on a reply form which was attached to the letter sent to all chapter officers on December 8. Chapters will be billed in April, 1943 for the 1943 subscriptions.

Cordially yours,

W. T. LAPRADE, *President*

RALPH E. HIMSTEAD, *General Secretary*

INFORMATION CONCERNING NOMINEES FOR THE COUNCIL

The following brief biographical sketches of the 1942 nominees for the Council are published for the information of the membership, pursuant to By-Law 1. All of these nominees were selected by the Nominating Committee, as presented with the Committee report in the October, 1942 *Bulletin*. Due to the cancellation of the 1942 Annual Meeting (see pages 696-699) the election will be conducted by mail. Ballots for this purpose will be sent to the Active Members of the Association in January, to be marked by them and mailed to the Association's Washington office.

Nominees for the Council, 1943-1945¹

DISTRICT I

GEORGE B. FRANKLIN, English, Boston University

Elected 1924;² Chap. Secy.-Treas., 1934-37; Com. on Organization and Conduct of Chapters, 1939-

Born 1877. A.B., 1903, University of Georgia; A.M., 1913, Ph.D., 1921, Harvard University. Instructor, 1908-12, Georgia School of Technology; Instructor, 1914-16, Simmons College; Assistant Professor, 1916-18, Colby College; educational work with A. E. F., 1918-19; Professor, 1919-24, Evansville College; Associate Professor, 1924-29, Professor, 1929-, Boston University.

OTTO F. KRAUSHAAR, Philosophy, Smith College

Elected 1933; Chap. Secy. and Acting Chap. Pres., 1935-36; Chap. Pres. 1936-37; Chap. Exec. Com., 1936-40.

Born 1901. A.B., 1924, A.M., 1927, State University of Iowa; Ph.D., 1933, Harvard University. High school principal, 1924-26; Assistant, 1927-29, Instructor, 1930-33, Harvard University and Radcliffe College; Visiting Assistant Professor, 1929-30, University of Kansas; Visiting Lecturer, 1935-36,

¹ One from each district to be elected.

² Refers in this and each following statement to the date of election to Association membership.

Amherst College; Assistant Professor, 1933-36, Associate Professor, 1936-39, Professor, 1939- , Smith College.

DISTRICT II

HARRY KURZ, Romance Languages, Queens College

Elected 1921; Chap. Pres., 1942- .

Born 1889; B.A., 1909, The City College (New York); M.A., 1911, Ph.D., 1916, Columbia University. Tutor, 1909-16, The City College (New York); Assistant Professor, 1918-20, Carleton College; Professor, 1920-21, University of South Dakota; Professor and Head of Department, 1921-34, Knox College; Professor and Head of Department, 1934-38, University of Nebraska; Associate Professor, 1938- , Queens College.

H. VAN RENSSELAER WILSON, Philosophy, Brooklyn College

Elected 1935; Chap. Secy. 1938- .

Born 1900; A.B., 1921, Oberlin College; B.D., 1926, Chicago Theological Seminary; Ph.D., 1932, University of Chicago. Teacher, 1921-23, Cazenovia Seminary; Minister, 1925-28, Brainerd Community Church, Chicago, Ill.; Professor of Philosophy, 1930-32, College of the Ozarks; Associate Professor, 1933-35, Vassar College; Instructor, 1935- , Brooklyn College.

DISTRICT III

HAROLD A. LARRABEE, Philosophy, Union College

Elected 1926; Chap. Pres., 1937-38.

Born 1894. A.B., 1916, Ph.D., 1925, Harvard University; M.A., 1918, Columbia University. Assistant Professor, 1920-21, Syracuse University; Assistant, 1921-23, Harvard and Radcliffe Colleges; Rogers Traveling Fellow, 1923-24, Harvard University; Assistant Professor, 1924-25, University of Vermont; Assistant Professor, 1925-27, Associate Professor, 1927-28, Professor, 1928- , Union College.

MARY H. SWINDLER, Classical Archaeology, Bryn Mawr College

Elected 1920.

Born 1884. A.B., 1905, A.M., 1906, LL.D., 1941, Indiana University; Ph.D., 1912, Bryn Mawr College. Reader, 1912-16, Instructor, 1916-21, Associate, 1921-25, Associate Professor, 1925-31, Professor, 1931- , Bryn Mawr College; Visiting Professor, 1938, American School of Classical Studies at Athens.

DISTRICT IV

LUCIUS GASTON MOFFATT, Romance Languages, University of Virginia

Elected 1930; Chap. Secy.-Treas., 1934-37; Chap. Pres., 1937-38.

Born 1899. A.B., 1921, Litt.D., 1939, Erskine College; M.A., 1928, Ph.D., 1929, Harvard University. Instructor, 1922-24, Clemson College; Instructor, 1928-29, Harvard University; Associate Professor, 1929-37, Professor and Chairman of Department, 1937-40, Syracuse University; Professor and Head of School of Romance Languages, 1940- , University of Virginia.

RICHARD J. PURCELL, History, Catholic University of America

Elected 1930; Chap. Pres., 1938-41; Editorial Committee, 1942- .

Born 1887. B.A., 1910, M.A., 1911, University of Minnesota; Ph.D., 1916, Yale University; LL.B., 1939, Georgetown University. Head of Department of History and Government, 1916-20, College of St. Thomas; Instructor, 1920-22, Associate Professor, 1922-29, Professor, 1929- , Head of Department, 1931- , Catholic University of America; Guggenheim Fellow, 1927-28.

DISTRICT V

LELAND J. GORDON, Economics, Denison University

Elected 1931; Chap. Pres., 1933-35.

Born 1897. B.S., 1922, M.A., 1924, Ph.D., 1928, University of Pennsylvania. Instructor, 1922-29, Assistant Director of Admissions, 1927-30, Assistant Professor, 1931, University of Pennsylvania; Special Lecturer, 1927-29, Haverford College; Penfield Traveling Fellow, 1929-30; Professor and Head of Department, 1931- , Denison University.

FRANCIS EARL RAY, Chemistry, University of Cincinnati

Elected 1930. Chap. Secy., 1935; Chap. Pres., 1937-38.

Born 1898. B.Sc., 1921, D.Sc., 1931, Oxford University; M.A., 1926, University of Illinois. High school teaching, 1921-26; Research Assistant, 1926-27, University of Illinois; Instructor, 1927-30, Grinnell College; Assistant Professor, 1931- , University of Cincinnati.

DISTRICT VI

THOMAS FITZGERALD GREEN, JR., Law, University of Georgia¹

Elected 1932; Chap. Pres., 1938-39; Associate Secretary, 1941-42.

¹ On leave of absence in the Office of Price Administration in Georgia.

Born 1903. A.B., 1925, LL.B., 1927, University of Georgia; J.S.D., 1931, University of Chicago. Tutor, 1925-26, Associate Professor, 1929-32, Professor, 1932- , University of Georgia.

E. L. LIVELY, Sociology, Fairmont State Teachers College

Elected 1930; Chap. Pres., 1930-41.

Born 1880. Marshall College, 1906; B.S., 1912, West Virginia University; A.M., 1920, Ohio State University. Elementary schools, 1900-04; Principal, Junior High School, 1906-09; High School, 1910-11; Professor and Head of Department, 1912- , Fairmont State Teachers College.

DISTRICT VII

CHARLES O. LEE, Pharmacy, Purdue University

Elected 1920; Chap. Secy., 1932-33; Chap. Pres., 1937-39.

Born 1883. Attended Baker University, 1908-10; B.S., 1913, University of Kansas; M.S., 1917, University of Chicago; Ph.D., 1930, University of Wisconsin. Teacher, 1913-15, Medical College of Virginia; Professor, 1915-20, 1926- , Purdue University. Pharmacist, 1920-23, Acting Superintendent, 1922-23, General Hospital, Wuhu, China; Professor, 1923-25, University of Nanking; in charge of dispensary, 1925-26, University of Wisconsin.

E. W. McDIARMID, Library Science, University of Illinois

Elected 1935; Chap. Secy.-Treas., 1939- .

Born 1909. A.B., 1929, A.M., 1930, Texas Christian University; A.B. in Lib. Sci., 1931, Emory University; Ph.D., 1934, University of Chicago. Librarian, 1934-37, Baylor University; Associate, 1937- , Assistant Director, 1942- , University of Illinois Library School.

DISTRICT VIII

WILLIAM CHARLES KORFMACHER, Classical Languages, Saint Louis University

Elected 1935; Chap. Secy., 1935-38; Chap. Pres., 1938-40; Secy., Missouri Conference of University Professors, 1939-41.

Born 1900. A.B., 1922, A.M., 1923, Saint Louis University; Ph.D., 1934, University of Chicago. Lecturer, 1923-25, Instructor, 1925-34, Assistant Professor, 1934-39; Associate Professor, 1939- , Secretary of Department, 1929- , Saint Louis University.

A. S. MERRILL, Mathematics, Montana State University

Elected 1924; Chap. Pres., 1934-35, 1939-40; Com. on Organization and Conduct of Chapters, 1941- .

Born 1887. A.B., 1911, M.A., 1914, Colgate University; Ph.D., 1916, University of Chicago. Assistant and Instructor, 1911-14, Colgate University; Assistant Professor, 1916-20, Associate Professor, 1920-23, Professor, 1923- , Chairman of Division of Physical Sciences, 1936- , Director of Institutional Research, 1941- , Montana State University.

To fill unexpired term (1942-44) of Professor Arthur L. Keith, of University of South Dakota, deceased:

WILLIAM L. BRADSHAW, Political Science, University of Missouri

Elected 1932; Chap. Vice-Pres., 1940.

Born 1896. State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Missouri, 1913-15; B.S., 1917, M.A., 1924, University of Missouri; Ph.D., 1930, State University of Iowa. Assistant Professor, 1925-27, University of Puerto Rico; Instructor, 1927-30, Assistant Professor, 1930-33, Associate Professor, 1933-41, Professor, 1941- , University of Missouri; on leave, 1933-34, as Field Agent, American Municipal Association.

STUART A. QUEEN, Sociology, Washington University

Elected 1934; Chap. Pres., 1938-39; member, American Civil Liberties Union, 1925- .

Born 1890. A.B., 1910, Pomona College; A.M., 1913, Ph.D., 1919, University of Chicago. Executive Secretary, 1913-17, California State Board of Charities and Corrections; Instructor, 1919, University of Illinois; Associate Professor, 1919-20, Goucher College; Professor, 1920-22, Simmons College; Professor, 1922-30, University of Kansas; Associate Secretary, 1930-32, Detroit Community Fund and Council of Social Agencies; Professor, 1932- , Washington University.

DISTRICT IX

FRANK E. E. GERMANN, Chemistry, University of Colorado

Elected 1920; Chap. Pres., 1929-30; Com. on Organization and Conduct of Chapters, 1936- .

Born 1887. A.B., 1911, Indiana University; Dr. ès Sc., 1914, University of Geneva. Teacher, 1907-09, elementary schools; Instructor, 1912-13, University of Geneva; Instructor, 1913-14, Indiana University; Instructor, 1914-18, Cornell University; Professor, 1918-19, Colorado School of Mines; Professor, 1919- , University of Colorado.

OTTIS H. RECHARD, Mathematics, University of Wyoming

Elected 1923; Chap. Secy., 1925-29; Chap. Pres., 1936-37; Chap. Exec. Com., 1940-41.

Born 1896. A.B., 1916, M.A., 1918, Gettysburg College; Ph.D., 1930, University of Wisconsin. Instructor, 1916-18, Gettysburg College; Instructor, 1919-23, Lecturer, 1929-30, University of Wisconsin; Assistant Professor, 1923-25, Associate Professor, 1925-28, Professor, 1928- , Chairman of Department, 1926- , University of Wyoming.

DISTRICT X

CHARLES FAIRMAN, Political Science, Stanford University¹

Elected 1932; Chap. Secy., 1932-33; Chap. Pres., 1935-36.

Born 1897; A.B., 1918, M.A., 1920, University of Illinois; Ph.D., 1926, S.J.D., 1938, Harvard University; LL.B., 1934, University of London. Assistant Professor, 1926-28, Pomona College; Lecturer, 1928-30, Harvard University; Assistant Professor, 1930-36, Williams College; Brandeis Research Fellow, 1936-38, Harvard Law School; Associate Professor, 1938-41, Professor, 1941- , Stanford University.

MAX MASON, Mathematical Physics, California Institute of Technology

Elected 1915; Council, 1921-23.

Born 1877; B.Litt., 1898, University of Wisconsin; Ph.D., 1903, University of Göttingen. Instructor, 1903-04, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Assistant Professor, 1904-08, Yale University; Professor, 1908-25, University of Wisconsin; President, 1925-28, University of Chicago; Director for Natural Sciences, 1928-29, President, 1929-36, Rockefeller Foundation; Professor and Chairman of Observatory Council, 1936- , California Institute of Technology.

¹ On leave of absence in the Judge Advocate General's Department.

Contributors

SIEGMUND A. E. BETZ is on leave of absence from his teaching position at Lindenwood College. He is a Second Lieutenant in the Army Air Forces and is an instructor in meteorology in the Basic Flying School at Coffeyville, Kansas.

SAMUEL P. CAPEN is Chancellor of the University of Buffalo.

PHILLIPS D. CARLETON is Assistant Professor of English at the University of Vermont.

BLANCHE H. DOW is Professor and Head of the Department of Modern Languages at Northwest Missouri State Teachers College. She was chapter secretary in 1934-1935 and a member of the Council in 1939-1941.

CHRISTIAN GAUSS is Professor of Modern Languages at Princeton University. He is a Charter Member of the Association.

JOHN ISE is Professor of Economics at the University of Kansas. He served as a member of the Council in 1940-1942.

J. M. MAGUIRE is Professor of Law at Harvard University.

EDGAR H. STURTEVANT is Professor of Linguistics at Yale University. He is a Charter Member of the Association.

RAYMOND GRAM SWING is a well-known radio news commentator.

ROLAND L. WARREN is Associate Professor of Philosophy and Sociology at Alfred University.

MEMBERSHIP

Membership in the American Association of University Professors is open to all college and university teachers from the faculties of eligible institutions and to graduate students and graduate assistants. The list of eligible institutions is based primarily on the accredited lists of the established accrediting agencies subject to modification by action of the Association. Election to membership is by the Committee on Admission of Members following nomination by one Active Member of the Association who need not be on the faculty of the same institution as the nominee. Election cannot take place until thirty days after the nomination is published in the *Bulletin*. Nomination forms, circulars of information, and other information concerning the Association may be procured by writing to the General Secretary, 1155 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

(a) *Active*. To become an Active Member, it is necessary to hold a position of teaching or research with the rank of instructor or higher in an eligible institution and be devoting at least half time to teaching or research. Annual dues are \$4.00, including subscription to the *Bulletin*.

(b) *Junior*. Junior membership is open to persons who are, or within the past five years have been, graduate students in eligible institutions. Junior Members are transferred to Active membership as soon as they become eligible. Annual dues are \$3.00, including subscription to the *Bulletin*.

(c) *Associate*. Associate Members include those members who, ceasing to be eligible for Active or Junior membership because their work has become primarily administrative, are transferred to the Associate list with the approval of the Council. Annual dues are \$3.00, including subscription to the *Bulletin*.

(d) *Emeritus*. Any Active Member retiring for age from a position in teaching or research may be transferred, at his own request and with the approval of the Council, to Emeritus membership. Emeritus members pay no dues but may if they desire receive the *Bulletin*, at \$1.00 a year.

(e) *Life Membership*. The Treasurer is authorized by the Council to receive applications from Active, Junior, and Associate

Members for Life membership, the amount to be determined in each case on an actuarial basis. This includes a life subscription to the *Bulletin*.

Nominations for Membership

The following 224 nominations for Active membership and 1 nomination for Junior membership are printed as provided by the Constitution. In accordance with action by the Council, objections to any nominee may be addressed to the General Secretary, who will in turn transmit them for the consideration of the Committee on Admission of Members if received within thirty days after this publication. The Council of the Association has ruled that the primary purpose of this provision for protests is to bring to the attention of the Committee any question concerning the technical eligibility of the nominee for membership as provided in the Constitution.

The Committee on Admission of Members consists of Professors Ella Lonn, Goucher College, *Chairman*; B. W. Kunkel, Lafayette College; A. Richards, University of Oklahoma; R. H. Shryock, University of Pennsylvania; W. O. Sypher, University of Delaware; and F. J. Tschan, Pennsylvania State College.

Active

Alabama College, Edward C. Solomon; Allegheny College, Hannah G. Belcher, Robert Crispin, Frederick W. Haberman, Theodore L. Harris, Leona Kriesel, Kathryn Woodfill; University of Arkansas, Austin L. Venable; University of Arkansas (Medical School), Charles H. Winkler, Jr.; Arizona State Teachers College (Flagstaff), Ivernia Tyson; Baldwin-Wallace College, Paul Annear; Baylor University, Jean F. Funk, Robert A. Markham, Bernard Nelson; Beloit College, Ralph C. Huffer; Berea College, Dallas H. Candy, J. Clayton Feaver, Julian N. Hartt, Minnie M. Macaulay, William E. Newbolt, Henry Refo, G. Gilbert Roberts; Bucknell University Junior College, George E. May, Charles B. Reif; Case School of Applied Science, Kenneth H. Donaldson; University of Cincinnati, Isay Balinkin, Earl F. Farnau, Harold J. Kersten, William E. Restemeyer, Dare A. Wells; The Citadel, Karl V. Taylor; The City College (Commerce Center), M. Vertner Brown, Henry C. Langer, Jr., Robert A. Love, Harry Sand, William J. Shultz, Herbert Spero; Clark University, Kurt Ehlers, Robert P. Fischer; Coe College, Kent Andrews, Edith L. Barber, Eric Clitheroe, Mildred Deischer, Robert Drexler, John C. Fiske, James B. Hodgson, Alice E. Page, Cyrus W. Perkins, Ben H. Peterson, Alma Turechek, Elizabeth A. Windsor, Ruth Zika; Colgate Uni-

versity, Alfred Krakusin; **Connecticut College**, Beatrice D. Brown, F. Edward Cranz; **University of Connecticut**, Katherine Tingley; **Cornell College**, Alfred Schuhmann; **Cornell University**, Paul T. Homan; **DePauw University**, Harold Hickman; **Drake University**, Noel H. Petree, Hazel B. Weakly; **Drew University**, Robert L. Brunhouse; **Florida State College for Women**, Grace Fox, Daisy Parker, Christine B. Scarborough, Pearle G. Shepard, Dudley South; **University of Florida**, L. Vincent Mead, E. Carl Pratt; **Franklin and Marshall College**, Hugh A. Heller; **Fresno State College**, Oscar M. Braun, Lee N. Clark, A. E. Culbertson, V. Calvon McKim, Isaac B. Mayers; **Hamilton College**, Thomas McN. Johnston; **Hobart College**, Ithiel deSola Pool, Robert H. Stoetzer; **Hood College**, Dorothy M. Forsythe; **Hunter College**, W. Esdaile Byles, Ruth C. Conkey, Albert W. Heckman, Anna B. McKenna, Geraldine Marwick, Edna B. O'Dea, Frank T. Wilson; **Northern Illinois State Teachers College**, Jean I. Hart; **University of Illinois**, Herbert Vaughan; **Indiana University**, Casper O. Dahle, A. Louise Hastings; **Iowa State College**, Doris Hittle; **State University of Iowa**, Gustav Bergmann, Juan Lopez-Morillas, Ernest Sandeen; **James Millikin University**, Frank L. Klingberg, Frank J. Prindl; **Kansas State College**, Albert Horlings; **Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia**, Dorothy Boynton, Kathryn Kayser, George H. Phillips, Daisy Simpson, Ruth Tice, Gwendolyn Townsend; **John Tarleton Agricultural College**, William P. Grant; **Lawrence College**, William P. Gilbert; **Louisiana State University**, James M. Baker; **Madison College**, Alimae Aiken, Mona L. Coffman, Richard H. Logsdon; **Mary Washington College**, Robert J. Greef; **University of Maryland**, Carl W. Hintz; **Michigan State College**, Julia F. Tear; **University of Michigan**, Adelaide A. Adams, Charles R. Brassfield, James E. Dunlap, Claude A. Eggertsen, George M. Ehlers, Louis Eich, William Frankena, Marie D. Hartwig, Louis A. Hopkins, Henry Kruska, Raymond L. Laird, Cecil J. McHale, Norman R. F. Maier, Wesley H. Maurer, Arthur Moehlman, Cleo Murtland, Floyd A. Peyton, Richard J. Porter, Katherine E. Schultz, Maurice W. Senstius, Alexander M. Valerio; **Mills College**, Eleanor Lauer; **Minnesota State Teachers College (Bemidji)**, Clara M. Malvey; **University of Minnesota**, Helen G. Canoyer; **Montana State University**, Fay G. Clark, James L. C. Ford, Monica B. Swearingen, T. G. Swearingen; **University of New Hampshire**, Norman Bauer, Harry D. Berg, T. Burr Charles, Henry S. Clapp, Olga Conon, Tatiana Levkowich, Edith M. McKenzie, Shelby A. Mitcham, Verna Moulton, John H. Reynolds, Paul E. Schaefer, Russell R. Skelton, Doris Tyrrell; **New Mexico College of Agricultural and Mechanic Arts**, Ira G. Clark, Jr., Outten J. Clinard, Joseph J. Firebaugh, Vera T. Schmidt; **New Mexico Highlands University**, Nell Doherty; **New York Medical College**, Charles Haig, William Langan, Milton J. Raisbeck; **New York University**, Raymond A. Katzell; **North Carolina State College**, C. Horace Hamilton; **Occidental College**, Margery F. Freeman; **Ohio State University**, Lowry W. Harding; **Pennsylvania State College**, John R. Bracken, Andrew H. Melville, Harry A. Sorensen, William R. Whitacre; **Purdue University**, J. Holmes

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Junior

Not in Accredited Institutional Connection, Jean Perry (M.A., Yale University), Washington, D. C.

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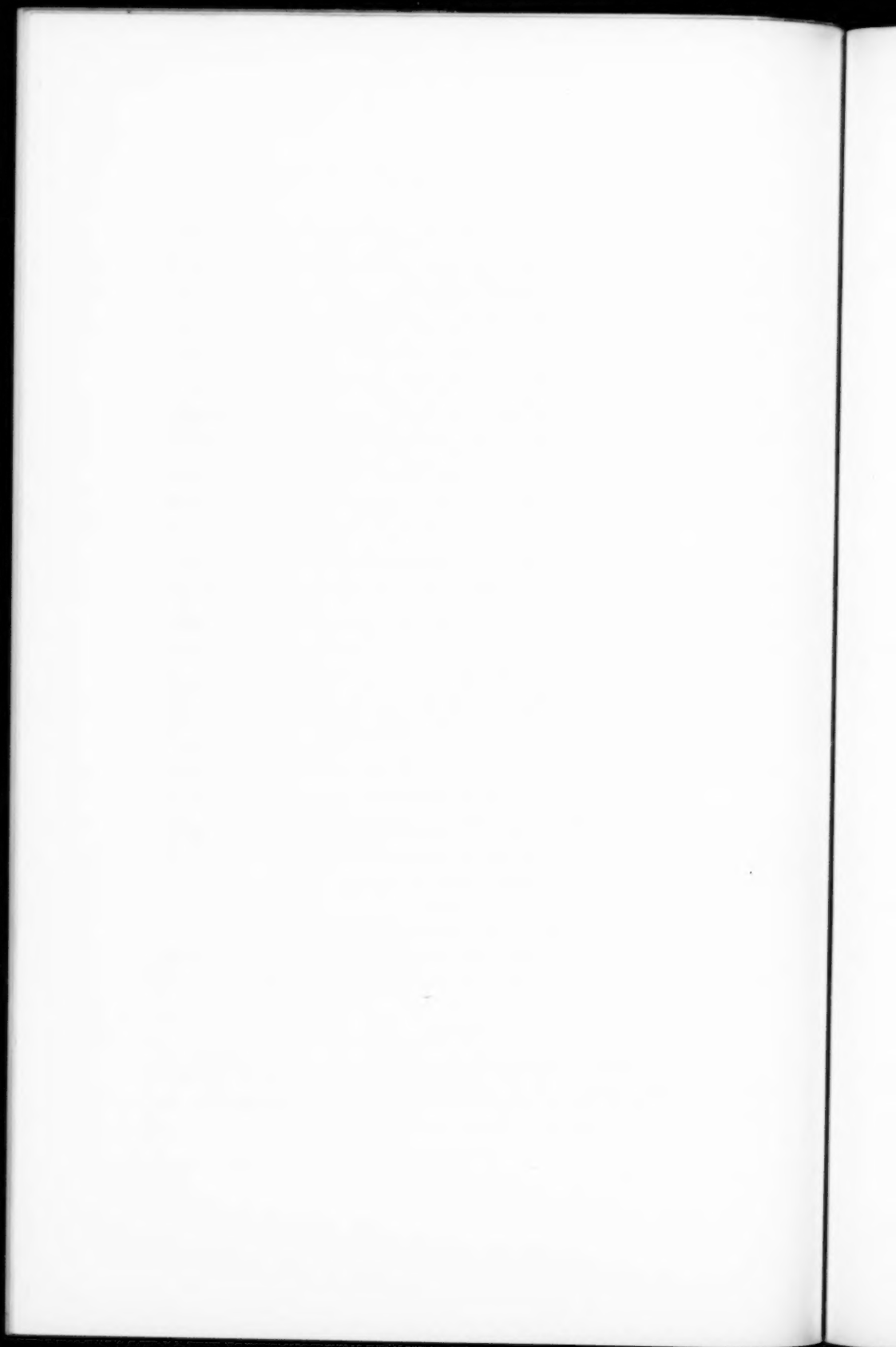
Pearce Davis, Heinrich Hoeniger, Raymond Mandra, Isabel E. Rathborne; Indiana University, Leo Dowling, Roger W. Shugg, Brooks Smeeton; Iowa State College, Wilbur C. Nelson; State University of Iowa, Charles H. Foster; Kalamazoo College, Willis F. Dunbar; Kansas State College, B. R. Patterson; Fort Hays Kansas State College, Hobart S. Davis, Thelma I. De Forest, William H. Miller; Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Olive G. Phelps; Kemper Military School, Robert W. Earle; Louisiana College, Isabelle Johnson; University of Maryland, Catherine Barr, Curry N. Caples, Katherine Ward; Michigan State College, Frank Mannheimer, Townsend Rich, Elizabeth Walbert, Lester F. Wolterink; Mississippi State College for Women, R. John Rath; College of Mount St. Vincent, Susan Martin; Multnomah College, Carl A. Keeler, Martha F. McKeown, Katherine F. Murphy; New York Medical College, David Scherf; New York University, Pliny H. Powers; North Carolina College for Negroes, Joseph H. Taylor; East Carolina Teachers College (North Carolina), Hubert C. Haynes, E. L. Henderson; University of North Carolina, Nathan Rosen; University of North Dakota, Arthur W. Gill, Walter E. Kaloupek; University of Oregon, Pierre Van Rysselberghe, Willis C. Warren; Pennsylvania State College, Joseph R. Hilgert, Norbert J. Kreidl, Gilma Olson, Paul J. Reber, C. G. Vandegrift, Robert L. Weber; Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Millersville), Arthur R. Gerhart; University of Pittsburgh, Dorothy McMurry, Buell B. Whitehill, Jr.; Purdue University, Marion L. Mattson; Ricker Junior College, Mary Goins; Rutgers University, Oscar Lassner; San Angelo College, Mary Rountree; San Mateo Junior College, Robert R. Scidmore; Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, Carl W. Files, Clinton M. Kelley, Dial F. Martin; University of Texas, Willard R. Cooke, Delmar R. Gard, Jesse Johnson, William L. Marr, Loyd W. Sheckles, Jr., Henry H. Sweets, Jr., Clarence S. Sykes, Jarrett E. Williams; Utah State Agricultural College, William W. Henderson, Milton R. Merrill; University of Utah, Stephen C. Tornay; University of Washington, Clark Kerr; Wayne University, Raymond Miller; Westminster College (Pennsylvania), Carroll Leeds; West Virginia Wesleyan College, Ralph C. Brown, Oscar D. Lambert, Harold G. Steele; Yale University, George L. Trager.

Transfers from Junior to Active

Bowling Green State University, LeRoy C. Ferguson; Florida State College for Women, Ellen C. Keaty; Hampton Institute, Joseph Trainor.

Junior

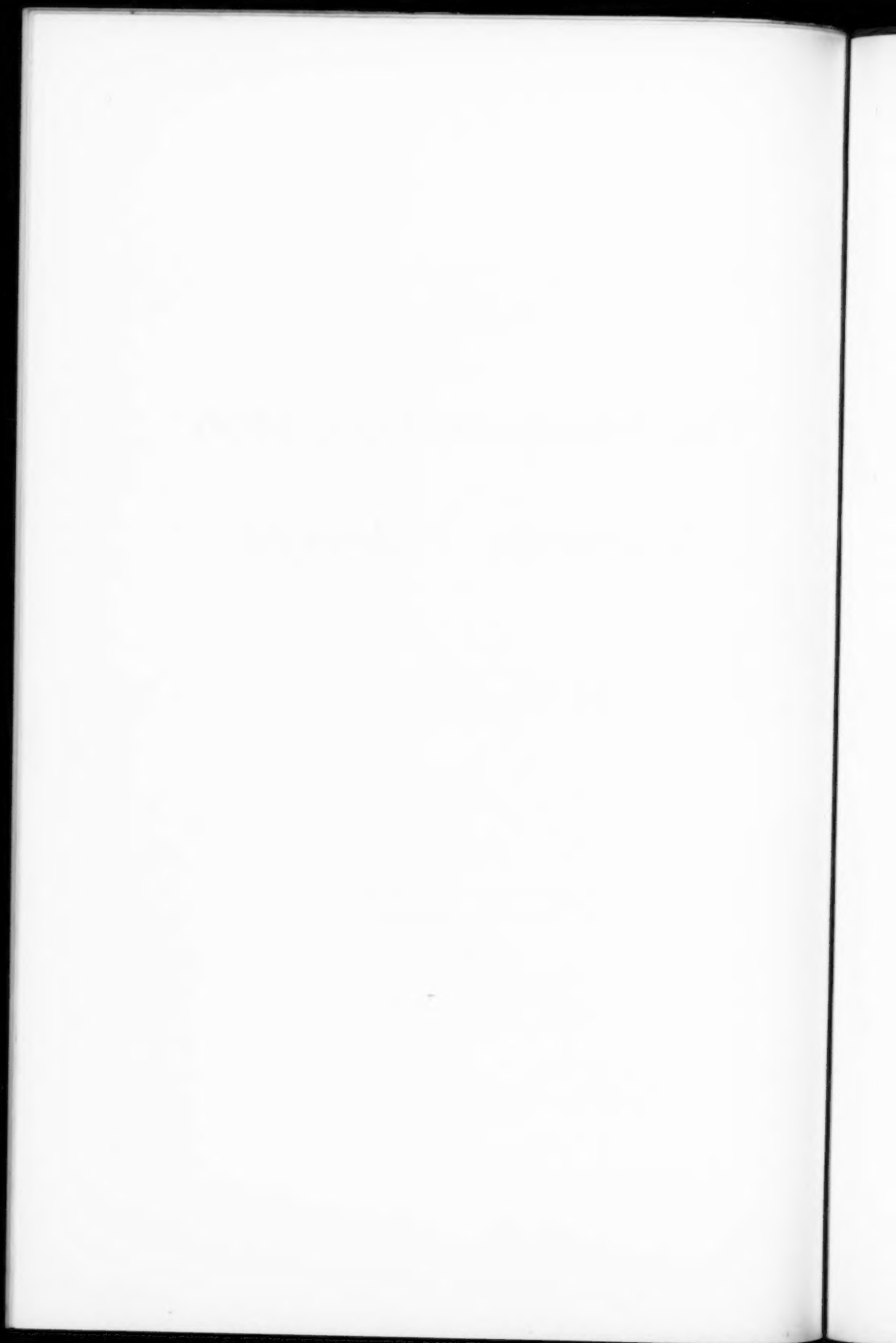
Columbia University, Edward G. Hartmann; Not in Accredited Institutional Connection, George W. Bond (Ed.D., Columbia University), Hammond, La.; Kathryn H. Burkart (Ph.D., University of Pittsburgh), Pittsburgh, Pa.



Bulletin
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of
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Academic Vacancies and Teachers Available

The Association is glad to render service to appointing officers and teachers by publishing the information below. The officers of the Association can, however, take no responsibility for maintaining a register or for making a selection among applicants. It is optional with the appointing officer or the applicant to publish the address in the announcement or to use a key number. In the latter case those interested should send their letters of application to the General Secretary, American Association of University Professors, 1155 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

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Chemist, Zoologist, Botanist: Publications in all three fields. Ph.D. Desires change to normal school or small college where variety of interest would be useful. A 2043

Chemistry, Modern Languages: Man, married, Ph.D. Teaching and research in leading universities. Sigma Xi. Industrial work in U S. and Latin-America. Retired 1938. Wishes to return to teaching activity in accredited institution. A 2044

English Language and Literature or German: Man, 57, single, Ph.D. Native American. 20 years of college teaching. Experienced in administration. Post-graduate study in European universities. Scientific investigations. Author. Speaking engagements. Mild climate preferred. A 2050

French: Man, 36, married, Ph.D., ten years' college teaching, now successfully employed at small northeastern college, desires change to warmer climate because of wife's health (wife also teacher of

French). Extensive study and travel abroad. French spoken since childhood. Research, publications, professional recognition. Vitaly interested in students as well as in research. Available June, 1943.

A 2045

History, Social Science and Bible: Man, married, draft exempt, Ph.D. Ten years of college teaching. Major field of study, American History. Now available.

A 2046

Home Economics: Master's degree. Advanced work completed. College and university experience in teaching and supervision.

A 2047

Romance Languages: Man, Ph.D. Foreign travel, residence and study. Publications. Conversational knowledge of French. Employed.

A 2048

Sociology: Man, 53. Record in *Who's Who in America* and other directories. Twenty years at present position in large urban university; active and recognized as teacher, author, and citizen. Wide range of courses and contacts. Member of several professional societies including A. A. S. W., N. C. S. W.; life member A. S. S. and A. A. U. P. Prefers smaller institution near Atlantic or Pacific Coast. Available September, 1943, possibly sooner.

A 2049

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